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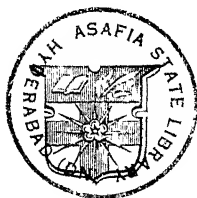
MAIN LANDMARKS OF EUROPEAN HISTORY

BY

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Fourth Impression



LONDON: W. B. CLIVE

University Tutorial Press Ltd.

DRURY LANE, W.C.

1910

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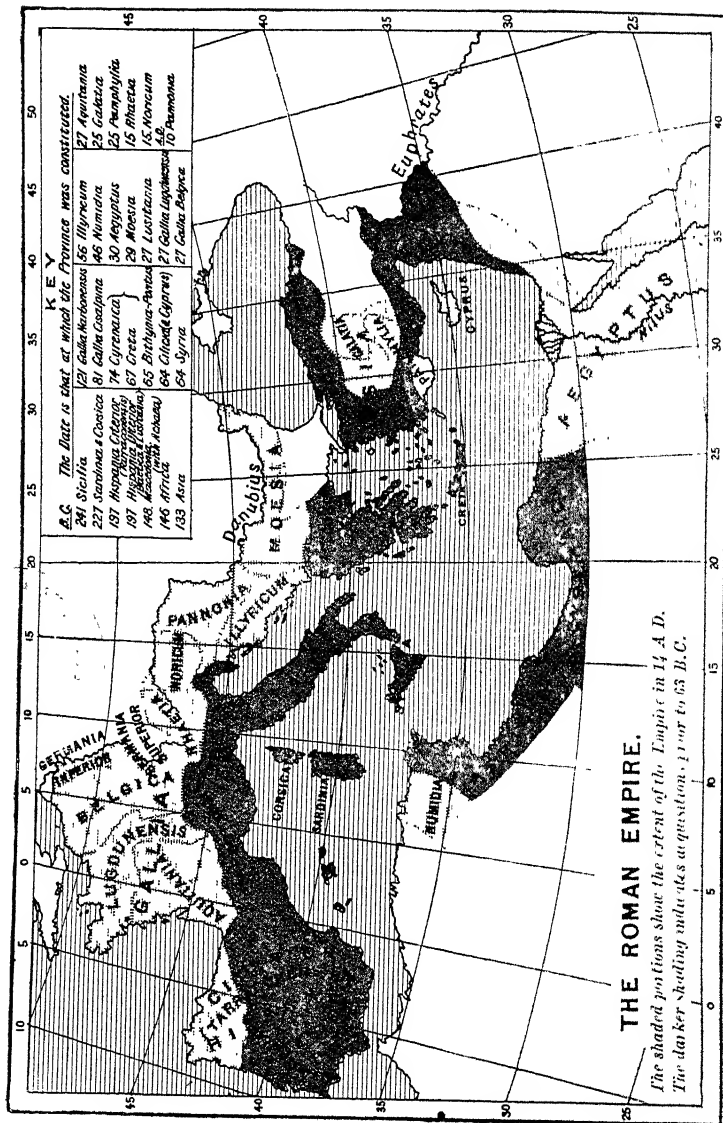
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CHAPTER I.

The Roman Empire and Its Fall.

General.—In the following pages we purpose to trace the history of Europe through the greater part of its course down to the present day. We take it up at a point when Europe meant hardly more than the countries bordering on the Mediterranean Sea, when in fact the limits of the known world were but little wider. Britain was almost unknown and was regarded as barbarous. The Rhine and the Danube were the northern boundary of Europe, and Russia and Poland were an unexplored waste; while in Asia, though Alexander the Great had made an expedition as far as India, nothing accurate was known of the countries beyond the Euphrates and Mount Taurus. Africa at that time meant Egypt and a narrow strip of land along the northern coast, shut off from the interior by sandy deserts.

What a change from the Europe and the world of to-day! The Mediterranean basin is no longer the centre of civilisation and the arts, the Rhine and the Euphrates no longer bound the horizon of the political world. The interests of modern Europe are world-wide; no longer subject to a single master, she has become a great community of states whose power is felt over lands unheard of by Greek or Roman. Our object will be to trace in outline the successive steps of the process which has brought

about this change, and has evolved the Europe of to-day from the Europe of 31 B.C.

Roman Dominion in 31 B.C.—Over almost the whole of the world as we have described it, Rome held sway. Britain was practically independent; in Palestine the Jews were still unbroken to the yoke; on the Euphrates the Parthians could almost meet the conquerors of the world on equal terms. But all the countries immediately bordering on the Mediterranean had been brought under Roman rule by a succession of wars waged by the great republic, her allies, and dependents. These wars, however, had meant more to Rome than the conquest of territory: they had broken down the old republican system of government. Government by city magistrates had been suitable for the small city states of Greece, and for Rome at the outset of her career; but it quite failed when applied to the administration of vast realms inhabited by nations differing in race and often opposed in interests.

We should not expect the council of a great city to rule the British Empire well, and so it proved with Rome. Generals coming back with their victorious armies were unwilling to settle down at Rome as private citizens; they wanted still to exercise the powers they had wielded in lands far from the control of the Senate and the assemblies of citizens. And as the Roman dominion grew, there were many of these generals striving to establish themselves at the head of the government with the help of their armies and of the city mob, until at last the crisis was reached in the great conflicts for the supreme power between Julius Caesar and Pompey (49-48 B.C.), and between Caesar's great-nephew Octavian, afterwards called Augustus, and Antony. From these struggles Augustus emerged victorious in 31 B.C.

at Actium in Epirus, where he finally defeated Antony's project of a separate kingdom in the East. The old republic had crumbled into ruin, its supporters had perished in a series of bloody wars and proscriptions, and a new system of government by one man began with the birth of the Roman Empire.

The Early Roman Empire.—The change was made with caution, and was not at first openly acknowledged, because the Romans were not used to a master and hated the name of king; but as time went on the disguise was dropped, and it was recognised that Rome was no longer the mistress, but only the capital, of the Empire. All power rested in the hands of the Emperors and their favourites, and in the army; but on the whole the first three hundred years of the Empire were a very happy time for the world. There were frequent wars on the frontiers against the barbarians, but in Italy and round the Mediterranean life was very peaceful, disturbed only by occasional struggles between rivals for the throne. The boundaries of the Empire were extended a little, Britain being finally conquered in 84 A.D., while in the East for a short time the frontier reached beyond the Taurus to the Caspian Sea. But after 120 A.D. there was no further growth, the Emperors being occupied in defending the frontiers against the barbarians who were trying to press in, the Germans or Teutons on the north, and in the East the Parthians, and later on the Persians. Troubles arose also within the Empire, for the armies began to elect their favourite generals as Emperors; civil wars often followed, and sometimes there were two or three Emperors at once in different parts of the Empire. These internal divisions and the weakness caused by them were very serious, for about 200 A.D. the pressure of the Teutonic nations, the Franks and the Goths, on the northern

frontiers was becoming really alarming, and by this time the old simple and energetic character of the Romans had been spoiled by ages of luxury and peace.

The Growth of Christianity.—About the same time Christianity began to play a large part in the history of the world. Our Lord Jesus Christ was born in the reign of Augustus, but of course the spread of the religion He taught was very gradual, especially as it was bitterly opposed by the Emperors. The Romans, though very tolerant of the different forms of idolatry practised by the subject races, yet made the worship of the Roman gods a part of their system of government; some of the Emperors were actually worshipped as gods after their death. Naturally, therefore, a religion which taught that all such gods were false was regarded as dangerous to the state. Nevertheless, in spite of occasional persecutions, Christianity advanced steadily until the accession of the Emperor Diocletian (284 A.D.). His edicts prohibiting the worship of Christ were very severe, and were rigorously enforced, so that great numbers of Christians lost their lives because they refused to worship the false gods. These cruelties, however, altogether failed to check the growth of the new religion, and were abandoned as fruitless even before Diocletian's abdication. It is important to note that Christianity had become firmly established before the barbarians finally conquered the Empire, for when they did so it was one of the chief means of educating them, and of bringing about their peaceful settlement in their new lands.

Constantine the Great.—The persecuting Emperor, Diocletian, carried out a change of system which had been imminent for a long time. He recognised that since all the inhabitants of the Empire had acquired the privileges

that used to belong only to Roman citizens, and since the chief centres of action were now the border provinces, Rome and Italy were no longer so important as in former times. He therefore decided to divide the Empire into two parts, an Eastern and a Western half. The new system gave much trouble at first, and there were civil wars until Constantine in 323 reunited the whole in one Empire. The reign of Constantine forms a new departure in the history of the Empire. He was the first Emperor who became a Christian, and henceforward Christianity may be looked upon as the recognised religion of the realm. It took somewhat different shapes in the Eastern and Western divisions of the Empire, but in each it soon acquired practically unquestioned sway; in fact, it struck root so firmly that not only the Empire but its barbarian conquerors came under the dominion of the Church. Rome, by her position as the seat of the Popes, retained the headship of the world long after she had lost it as the capital of the Empire.

And there was another great change carried out by Constantine which foreshadowed the fall of the imperial city from its pride of place. He moved the seat of government from Rome to Byzantium, on the Bosphorus, henceforth called Constantinople, the city of Constantine. Here he tried to restore strength to the political system of the Empire by reorganising the provinces under his governors and by reforming the financial system. His reforms were of some service to the Eastern part of the Empire; but the West, continually assailed by fresh hordes of barbarians and sinking under internal decay, was past cure, and its greatness did not long survive the final division of the Empire, which took place within sixty years of Constantine's death.

The Barbarians.—The relations of the barbarians to the Empire had always been a source of great and constantly increasing anxiety. Since the days of Augustus the frontier question had been very important, and it had been met in different ways by different Emperors. At first, having with difficulty fixed the Rhine and the Danube as the boundary on the north, the Emperors were content to repel the attacks of the Germans; later on they tried attacking them as the best means of keeping them off, and for a time the Emperors occupied part of the country to the north of the Danube. Gradually, however, the resistance offered to the pressure of the hostile tribes became weaker; the discipline of the Roman armies was relaxed; the weakness or necessities of the Emperors forced them to pay tribute to the barbarians, to enlist them in their armies, and even to settle large bodies of them in the remoter provinces. These Teutonic settlements and the Teutonic conquests which followed them constitute one of the most important facts of our history, and it was through the settlements that the Church was first able to establish her influence over the invaders.

The Fall of the Empire in Italy.—The pressure of the Teutons on the Empire was increased in the fourth century by the fact that they also were being pushed on by the migration of other nations from the depths of Asia. The West Goths, flying before these migrating hordes, crossed the Danube and invaded the Empire. The Roman armies, collected under the Emperor Valens to oppose them, met with a crushing defeat at Adrianople (378). This disaster was never retrieved. The victorious Goths, led by the famous Alaric, passed on into Italy and sacked Rome (410). Leaving Italy they pressed on through Gaul into Spain, and there founded the Visigothic kingdom of Spain.

Italy, however, was not to enjoy immunity during these migrations, being ravaged by several invading peoples in succession, of whom the Vandals in particular earned an undying reputation for pillage and destruction. Africa was their final settling place, and they were succeeded by the Huns, the formidable Asiatic race whose advance had impelled the Goths on the decaying Roman state. They were led by their king, the terrible Attila; and although they were defeated in a great battle fought near Châlons (451) by the armies of the Romans, Goths, Franks, and Burgundians, united against the common danger, yet these tribes of fierce barbarians had now effected a lodgment in the heart of the Western Empire.

From the settlements made by these roving peoples have risen some of the chief nations of modern Europe. The Goths in Spain, the Franks and Burgundians in Gaul and Germany, the Angles and Saxons in Britain, formed the stock of the nations now known as Spanish, French, Germans, and English. In name they were often subject to the Empire; in fact they were quite independent, for the Emperors at Constantinople had quite enough to do in fighting against the Persians, and could spare no help for the West. And the Emperor at Rome had ceased to exist. The last Emperors of the West had been mere puppets in the hands of their armies, and the sack of Rome had revealed the weakness of the Empire. Accordingly in 476 the Western Empire came to an end, and the Emperor of the East alone remained. Italy had fallen into the hands of a captain of mercenary soldiers, and the invasion of the East Goths under Theodoric, and his establishment as King of Italy (493), made it quite clear that Rome's place as mistress of the world was lost. But the world owed her a very heavy debt, for she left her language, her laws, her

institutions for later ages to use as a model, and she had nurtured into strength the Church which was later to bring back to Rome much of her old supremacy.

The Eastern Empire after A.D. 476.—We have seen that the Empire was continually waging war on its northern frontier against the Teutons. A similar struggle had been proceeding in the East with the Parthians, and later with the Persians, the Emperor first getting the upper hand, and then falling back again. The establishment of the government at Constantinople had made no permanent difference in this respect, and the only chance of decisive success lay in a strong ruler. Such an one arose in Justinian (527), who restored some of the lost glory of the Empire. Against Persia he was unable to accomplish much, but his armies won back for a time a large part of the Western Empire, taking Africa from the Vandals, Italy from the East Goths, and also a part of Spain. In civil affairs Justinian acquired even greater renown, for under his direction the laws of the Empire were digested into the Code which has formed the basis of the legal system of Europe. This was in fact his most enduring work; for the conquests made by his famous generals, Belisarius and Narses, were lost soon after his death, and the genius of Heraclius (610), the last great Emperor of the East, struggled in vain to arrest the decline of the state. He succeeded in breaking completely the power of the Persians, but the strength of the Empire was exhausted; his conquests crumbled away even during his lifetime, and the rise of Mahomet and the conquests of the Saracens exposed Europe to new dangers. The Eastern Empire survived for another eight hundred years, but for the greater part of the time in a state of weakness which robbed her of any real importance except as a bulwark against the Turks.

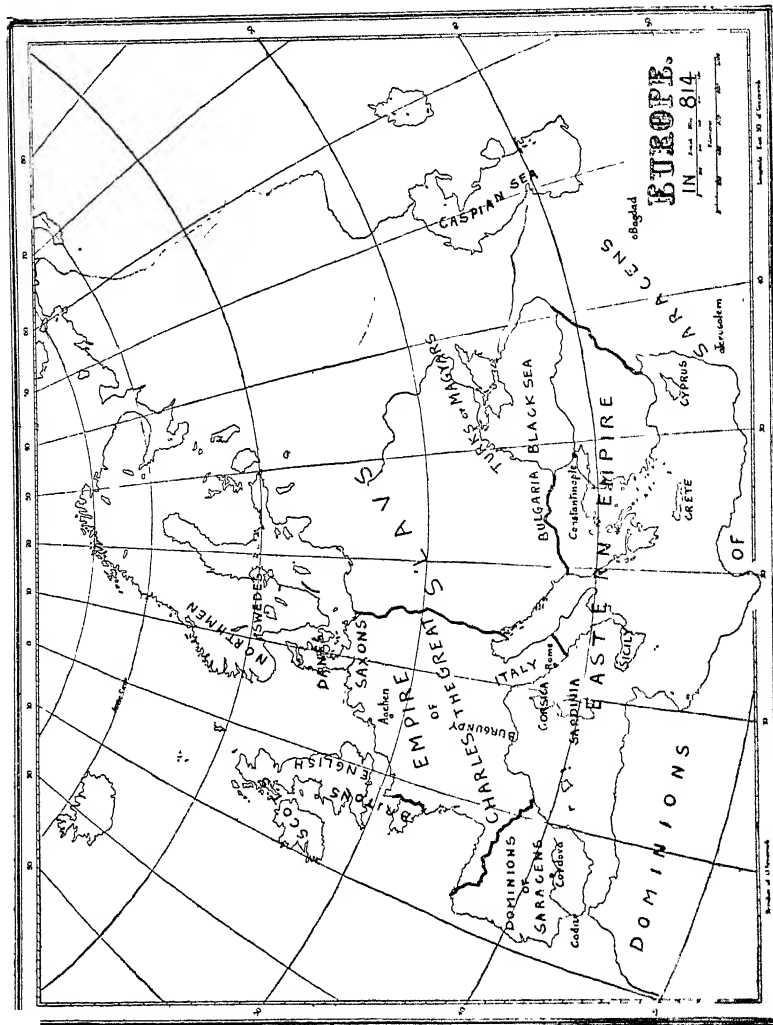
The Rise of Mahometanism.—Such a bulwark was sorely needed from the seventh century onwards, for the growth of Mahometanism was rapid, and, unlike Christianity, it has always been a religion of the sword. Mahomet, its founder, was an Arab, born at Mecca (A.D. 570), who taught that there was only one God, and that Abraham, Noah, and Jesus were all prophets of that God, but that he himself was the last and greatest of these prophets. His teaching was at first rejected by the Arabs, but was accepted before his death and spread very rapidly. In many respects its effect was beneficial, for the book of his revelations, called the Koran, imposed very strict and on the whole salutary laws on all believers. But as he grew powerful Mahomet began to preach that all nations should be forced to accept Islamism, his religion, and this teaching resulted in ages of almost incessant warfare. The Arabs, or Saracens, soon started on their mission of conquest, and Syria and Egypt were subdued in a very short time; but they could not capture Constantinople or hold Asia Minor. From Africa they passed over in 710 into Spain which was speedily subdued, and it seemed at one time that the Saracens would overrun Western Europe. Their progress was arrested by a great defeat inflicted by the Franks under Charles Martel at Tours in 732. Henceforth they confined themselves to Spain where they maintained their power for more than seven hundred years.

The Kingdom of the Franks.—While the Eastern Empire was suffering from these wars with the Persians and Saracens, changes of an important character were going on in Western Europe. We saw that Justinian conquered Italy and part of Spain, but his conquests were not long retained, Italy being overrun by the Lombards, another Teutonic tribe, who founded a kingdom there. The

Emperors managed to keep Southern Italy for a time, but they could give no efficient help against the invaders; moreover a great quarrel was raging between Rome and Constantinople about the worship of images. The only power to whom the Bishop, or Pope, of Rome could appeal for assistance against the invading Lombards was Pepin, king of the Franks, son of Charles Martel, who at the prayer of Pope Stephen led an army across the Alps and defeated the Lombards. The Franks had become the most powerful nation of the West. Converted to Christianity in 496 under their king Clovis, they had conquered the Burgundians in south-east Gaul and the Goths in Aquitaine, and their kingdom comprised nearly all modern France and a large part of Germany. Clovis, the founder of the Merovingian dynasty, was however followed by a succession of bad kings, under whom there were constant civil wars and disturbances.

The last Meroving was deposed in favour of his chief subject, the Mayor of the Palace, Pepin, son of Charles Martel, who had himself practically enjoyed royal honour. It was fortunate that vigour and unity were restored to the Franks in time to repel the Saracen invasion. Shortly after this, in response to the Pope's appeal for help, the Franks defeated the Lombards and compelled them to desist from raiding the Papal territories; in this way the Franks gained the support of the Church. At last, in 800, the greatest of them, called Charles the Great, was crowned Emperor by the Pope at Rome, and the Empire of the West was renewed. Charles the Great, sometimes called Charlemagne, had certainly earned the title. He had conquered the Lombards of the northern and central districts of Italy, and part of Spain (temporarily) from the Saracens, and had extended his German dominions as far as Saxony

and Bavaria, so that his Empire was nearly as wide in area as that of the old Western Emperors. And thus from 800 to the fall of Constantinople in 1453 there were again two Emperors, one in the East and one in the West, each claiming to be the true Roman Emperor.



remained outside the European system. Fortunately for the peace of Europe, the Saracens, who were the common enemy, were torn at this time by intestine strife. About 750 the disputes among the descendants of Mahomet came to a head; rival caliphs were reigning at Bagdad, Cairo, and Cordova; the energy of the Saracens was dissipated in mutual hatred and destructive warfare, and Europe gained a brief respite from one of its greatest dangers. The Eastern Empire in particular was a gainer, as it was enabled to offer a more effective resistance to the Slavonic races which were assailing its northern frontier.

The Successors of Charlemagne.—Charlemagne was not contented merely to win a great empire; he endeavoured to rule his subjects wisely. Each year the chief nobles assembled to give and to receive advice; each year the Emperor sent round his officers to see that justice was being done according to his “capitularies” or laws. He founded schools, he protected religion and the arts, and did all that lay in his power for the improvement of his vast dominions. But he was unable to ensure that his successor should inherit his great qualities, and when he died, in 814, troubles at once began to arise. His son, Lewis the Pious, was a very weak king, incapable of controlling his rebellious children, and the process of disintegration was aided by the fact that the Empire was made up of different races which easily lent themselves to separation. Accordingly in 843, by the Treaty of Verdun, the Empire of Charlemagne was divided into three kingdoms, answering roughly to France, Germany, and Italy, ruled by the three grandsons of Charlemagne. But the division did not end here, for various parts of the three kingdoms elected minor kings for themselves, and there was continual strife among the different states. For a

very short time (884-887) the three great kingdoms were again united under Charles the Fat, but only to separate again, and this time permanently, into the old arrangement—France on the one side, Germany on the other, and between them a long irregularly-shaped strip of territory, stretching from Italy to Belgium, as the third or Middle Kingdom. It is for this middle kingdom that Germany and France have since been often fighting.

The Invasions of the Ninth Century.—The internal feuds of the three kingdoms were rendered more serious by the fact that attacks from outside were also being made. In the East the Hungarians or Magyars, a race kindred to the terrible Huns, repeatedly assailed the German princes, committing frightful ravages. But the most terrible of the invaders were the Northmen from Denmark and Norway. At first they came only in marauding bands, each under its particular chief, and against these Charlemagne himself had been obliged to make war. But from 850 onwards they came regularly every year to ravage the coasts, and even sailed up the rivers to sack the large towns, Paris being besieged on several occasions. And in consequence of the weakness of the kings and the quarrels of the nobles the Northmen met with so little opposition in France that they began to settle in various districts in the north. Charles the Bald paid them money to induce them to retire, and at last in 911 Charles the Simple ceded to them the rich province which was called after them Normandy. Their ravages in France then ceased, and they soon adopted Christianity, but their valour, craft, and energy made them dangerous subjects for the French king, and caused them to play a leading part in the history of Europe.

Foundation of the French Monarchy.—The successors of Charlemagne in France had thus a difficult task before

them. They had to resist the continual inroads of the Northmen, and at the same time to extend their power in Brittany and Aquitaine, which were only imperfectly subdued. This double task was rendered still more difficult by the rise of the great feudal nobility, who were unwilling to help the kings to become stronger, and were very jealous one of another. Under these circumstances the Caroling princes soon became powerless, having no money and no land, for they had gradually given all away as rewards to their servants. At last in 887 the French chose as their king Odo, duke of France, who had been very prominent in the wars against the Northmen. He ruled well and defeated the invaders; but even he could not command the obedience of the nobles, and at his death the old troubles broke out, the Carolings disputing the succession from time to time with other claimants. These domestic struggles continued for a whole century, until in 987 the last direct descendant of Charlemagne died, and was succeeded by Hugh Capet, duke of France, from whom descended a long line of kings. However, his immediate successors were not at all powerful and were constantly embroiled with the dukes of Normandy, Aquitaine, and Burgundy, and the counts of Flanders, Anjou, and Brittany. Their central position at Paris, however, gave them some advantage, and in time they were able gradually to extend their control.

England before the Danish Invasion.—In the history of Europe to the time of Charlemagne Britain had played but a very unimportant part. It had been regarded by Roman writers as cut off from the world; and when, from 410, the Roman troops were withdrawn, Britain led an almost separate existence, a prey to internal wars and the attacks of the invaders from Germany. Even before the Romans left, the Caledonians had burst in from Scotland, which

had never been wholly conquered, and when the legions were withdrawn Britain was an easy victim. The particular Teutonic tribes which in the general advance of the race passed over into Britain were the Angles, Saxons, and Jutes, all coming from the low-lying lands on the north coast of Germany. They swept over the island, driving the old Celtic inhabitants into Wales and Cornwall. Kent was the first kingdom founded (in 449), and in time seven kingdoms (the Heptarchy), always fighting for the supremacy, were established. Conversion to Christianity began in 597, but did not check the incessant warfare, Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex in turn holding the leading position. At length Wessex became permanently the most powerful kingdom, and Egbert, who reigned from 802 to 839, called himself Bretwalda or over-lord of the whole island. The unity thus attained was very timely, enabling the country to resist more successfully a new invasion.

England and the Danes.—England was the second great centre of attraction for the Northmen, whose doings in France have already been described. It is usual to speak of the Danish invasions of this country, but in reality the general name of Northmen or Vikings is preferable, for the invaders came from Norway and Sweden as well as from Denmark. The inroads began under Egbert; but here, as in France, a period of mere marauding preceded the period of settlement, and the first attacks were repelled with some success. In the reign of Alfred, however (871-901), the attempts to conquer the country had almost succeeded, but by great exertions he was able to compel the Vikings, by the Treaty of Wedmore, 878, to keep to the eastern and northern parts of the island and to become Christians. Alfred was the greatest of the early English

kings; his rule was both mild and just, and he encouraged learning and the arts in every possible way. Wars went on at intervals after his death, for the Danes continued to give much trouble, but at length, in 924, Edward the Elder united the whole kingdom under his rule. But this union was not permanent, for there were fresh invasions from Norway and Denmark, and in 1013 Sweyn, king of the Danes, was acknowledged king over all England. His son Canute won Norway and Sweden also, and was the most powerful prince of his time, but his sons ruled so badly that in 1042 the English revolted, and elected an Englishman, Edward the Confessor, as their king.

Germany after the Treaty of Verdun.—The Treaty of Verdun in 843 separated Germany from France for ever, and left the Middle Kingdom to be a bone of contention between them for many centuries after they had fully settled their domestic affairs. For the time being, however, the German kings were busily occupied in securing their position at home, and made no attempts to establish their supremacy over the debateable land. Arnulf, who became king in 887, when Charles the Fat was deposed, proved a very powerful ruler, and made his influence felt in France and Italy. He defeated the Northmen, but these were not so dangerous to Germany as to France and England. But Arnulf made one serious mistake: he called in the Hungarians to resist the Slavs, and thus introduced into his kingdom a formidable enemy, who gave much trouble to his successors. With the death of Arnulf's son the line of Charlemagne came to an end in Germany, and it became necessary for the nobles to choose a king. The country was already divided up into great duchies, of which the most important were Bavaria, Suabia, Franconia, and Saxony. The dukes of Saxony, who reigned from 918 to

1024 played the greatest part in raising Germany to be the leading power in Europe during the Middle Ages. Two chief problems faced them,—the invasions of the Magyars and the insubordination of the grand dukes.

Towards the solution of the first problem various methods were tried, the most successful being the foundation of fortified towns, and the establishment of Marks or frontier-provinces under military chiefs specially chosen to fight against the barbarians. The East Mark, one of the most important, in after years the Duchy of Austria, formed the basis of the modern Austria. At last, in 955, Otto the Great defeated the Hungarians in a great battle at Augsburg, and they gave up their raids to settle down in the kingdom which now bears their name. But after this the borders were not quite peaceful, for the Poles and Bohemians were only gradually becoming Christian, and northwards the Danes and Prussians were still heathen. The same policy was pursued against them as against the Hungarians, and with the same success. The treatment of the great duchies was almost as difficult a question; but here also Otto the Great (936-973) secured a great success. He managed to get members of his own family elected to several duchies which luckily fell vacant, and for a time comparative peace prevailed. Moreover he increased the temporal power of the clergy, making the bishops great landed nobles, in the hope that they would balance the power of the dukes. This policy was successful at the time, though it involved great dangers later in the struggle against the Papacy.

Restoration of the Empire, 962.—But the greatest achievement of Otto the Great was the restoration of the Empire to the German kingdom. Italy since the decline of the Carolings had been in a state of anarchy, and though

some of her kings had called themselves Emperors, they had not been generally acknowledged, nor had they enjoyed any power. As elsewhere, a large number of small and practically independent duchies had sprung into existence, the rulers of which disputed for the throne, while a succession of worldly Popes increased the prevailing confusion. Otto was called in to settle affairs in 952 and again in 961, and on the latter occasion he was crowned Emperor at Rome (962). With him began the Holy Roman Empire of the German nation, involving for good and ill a close connection between Germany and Rome for many centuries. The whole of the Middle Kingdom, however, was not joined to Germany, Burgundy remaining separate. The glory of the Saxon kings gradually declined after the first Otto, though Otto II. did try to conquer the southern part of Italy from the Eastern Emperor. At last, in 1024, the Saxon dynasty died out, leaving the restored Empire as a legacy to Germany. From 962 to 1806, when the Holy Roman Empire came to an end, the king of Germany always had a right to be crowned Emperor at Rome.

The Eastern Empire and the Slavs.—While events were thus shaping themselves in Western Europe, the Empire in the East was proceeding on the old lines. The conquests of Heraclius had been torn from the Empire by the rise of the Saracens, and in 718 the Emperor Leo had to make a supreme effort to drive them back from the walls of Constantinople. In this he was successful, but his reign was on the whole disastrous, as his edicts against the worship of images caused formidable discontents in the East, and the loss of much of his power in Southern Italy, where he had always experienced the enmity of the Popes. The great islands of Crete, Sicily, and Sardinia were still held by the Emperor of the East. The Iconoclastic Controversy (finally

decided in favour of the worship of images) and the refusal of the Patriarch of Constantinople to acknowledge the supremacy of the Pope were the principal causes which induced the latter to transfer his support to Charlemagne.

Meanwhile the old scourge, the attacks of the Saracens, was still active, and to these were now added the invasions of the Slavs, who pressed in from the north. Like the other barbarians, they came sometimes to plunder, sometimes to settle; and when they did settle, they always ended by becoming Christians. But before that happened the Empire had suffered severely. Thus the northern provinces were invaded by the Russians, whose fleets repeatedly attacked Constantinople by sea, and Servia and Bulgaria during a portion of the tenth century constituted a separate kingdom, torn from the Eastern Empire. Gradually, however, they were subdued by a strong dynasty of Emperors founded by Basil the Macedonian, who gave his name to the line. This family reigned from 867 to 1057, and to a great extent restored the fortunes of the Empire, as they not only reconquered Bulgaria, but also won back from the Saracens a portion of their Asiatic provinces. Yet it is important to remember that the Slavs, who have since played so prominent a part in European history, obtained during this period a firm footing in the East.

The Growth of the Power of the Church.—The Slavs were the last of the barbarian races to invade Europe, and like all their predecessors they became Christians. The Church had saved the civilisation of the world during these centuries of turmoil; she had tamed the conquerors and taught them to give up their brutal passion for blood and plunder, and to love religion and learning; she had provided monasteries where peaceful men could take refuge

from the storms of the world. Germany and England were already converted and the missionaries of the Church were to be found where the Roman legions had never ventured. And naturally the Church reaped a reward in riches, power, and influence which were constantly increasing. Repeated grants of land to the bishops and abbots enabled them to take rank amongst the greatest nobles, and as the only lettered class they always played a leading part in councils and assemblies.

In Germany, where the Church was strongest, she possessed perhaps a third of the land, and she owned very large domains in France, England, and Italy, and in all her possessions the bishops exercised the powers of feudal nobles,—they maintained castles and troops, made laws, and administered justice. Moreover, the unity of the Church doubled its strength as against every competitor. One head only was recognised, the Pope of Rome, and his orders were supreme throughout the Church, while the kings who ventured to oppose him could only count upon a doubtful obedience even in their own dominions. The Pope, therefore, gradually came forward as the only possible rival to the power of the Emperors in Germany, and against them he occupied from the first a very favourable position. No monarch could be Emperor until he had been crowned by the Pope, and in this way the Church, which already exercised spiritual rule over the world, began to acquire temporal sway also. As the old Empire broke up the Pope remained spiritual head over the states which had become detached from it, and therefore it was not to be expected that the Papacy should remain as submissive as when the Emperor ruled the whole Christian world. Rome was far from Germany, and control was difficult to exercise at so great a distance.

The Emperor Henry III.—Otto the Great, by the appointment of a Pope chosen by himself, had terminated the anarchy which prevailed in the Church. The same system was followed by his successors so far as they were able, and also by the Franconian line of Emperors, who were elected when Otto's family died out in 1024. Under these princes the power of the Empire reached the greatest height it attained in the Middle Ages. The kingdom of Burgundy was re-united to Germany in 1032, and Henry III. established his authority firmly over the great dukes and the border countries. His supremacy over Italy and Rome was firmly maintained, and it enabled him to regulate rigorously but judiciously the election of the Popes and bishops. When he died, however, in 1056, his son Henry IV. was quite young, and his minority gave the Papacy an opportunity to regain its power. The struggle between the Popes and the Empire, which was to last over two hundred years, now definitely began.

Gregory VII.—The principal part on the side of the Papacy in the early stages of the struggle was taken by Pope Gregory VII., who was elected in 1073, but as the monk Hildebrand had been able before this to guide his predecessors towards his great objects. The aims of Gregory were directed to the deliverance of the Papacy from the control of the Empire, to the reform of Church discipline, and to the subordination of temporal to ecclesiastical power. His first object was secured in 1059 by an imperial decree that the Popes should be elected by the Roman clergy. The second was achieved by stringent rules, the most important of which were that the clergy should not marry, and that simony (the taking of money for the bestowal of Church livings) should be stopped. It was the attempt to establish the supremacy of the eccle-

siastical power that brought Gregory into conflict with the Emperor Henry IV. The question at issue was whether a newly appointed bishop or abbot should receive his lands from the Emperor or from the Pope. The practice was for the Emperor to bestow them after consecration, by the ceremony called Investiture, and this naturally gave him great influence over the bishops. Gregory desired to put a stop to this custom, and to have the clergy dependent on the Papacy alone.

In pursuance of this object he had already interfered in France and England, and was now in alliance with some of the German princes who were dissatisfied with Henry's government. The Emperor declared the Pope to be deposed, and in return the Pope excommunicated him, that is, he released his subjects from their allegiance, and denied him the rites of the Church. The Emperor was forced to humble himself at Canossa in 1077 and to ask for pardon. This, however, did not end the strife between the two powers, and there was much warfare and misery in Germany and Italy. Gregory died in exile in 1085 and Henry was deposed by his own sons. Popes and Emperors at length grew weary of this phase of the struggle, and the question of Investiture was settled in 1122 by the Concordat of Worms, when it was agreed that the election of bishops should take place in the presence of the Emperors or their representatives, and that investiture with temporal power should precede consecration and investiture with spiritual power. Thus a compromise was arrived at, and for the moment there was peace between Rome and Germany. Similar difficulties were arranged in much the same way in England by Henry I. and Archbishop Anselm, and in other countries.

England and the Normans.—While these events were going on, the Northmen, who, next to the Germans, are

undoubtedly the leading race during this period, were carrying out their last conquests. The greatest extent of their dominion was perhaps reached under Canute, but their later conquests are even more famous and permanent. The earlier of these was the acquisition of Southern Italy and Sicily. It was as mercenaries that they first became acquainted with Southern Italy, and finding it an easy prey, they collected in larger numbers and carried out the conquest in regular fashion. They defeated the Pope, but thought it wise to make friends with him, and to receive their territories as his vassals (1053). Later on they crossed into Sicily, and wrested that also from the Eastern Empire, and in 1130 it was joined to Southern Italy as the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. Meanwhile the Normans in France had also become a considerable power, though they had lost many of their old characteristics, and had almost come to regard themselves as Frenchmen. Normandy was one of the most powerful French duchies and had become a very serious rival to the kingdom of France, and the position of the king was rendered more dangerous by the increase of power which accrued to the Normans from the conquest of England undertaken in 1066.

Edward the Confessor, who had been chosen to succeed the sons of Canute, died in that year without an heir, and Harold, the greatest noble in the country, was made king. But William, Duke of Normandy, claimed the crown in virtue of an alleged promise by Edward, and, supported by the Pope's blessing, he crossed to England, defeated Harold at Hastings, and was crowned king. The complete subjection of the country took some years, but all revolts were sternly suppressed, and at William's death in 1087 the Normans were firmly established in England. He had taken

care to guard against danger to his crown from rebellious nobles by dividing their estates as far as possible. England really benefited by the change, for she was brought into much closer contact with the rest of Europe, and soon began to advance rapidly in civilisation. But France was no gainer; the Duke of Normandy, with the added strength of England, was a more dangerous rival than before, and in this rivalry lurked the seeds of the jealousy and hatred which for so many centuries embittered the relations between France and England.

CHAPTER III.

The Epoch of the Crusades.

The Conquest of Jerusalem.—During the first half of the eleventh century a new nation comes into prominence in the history of the world, the Seljukian Turks, a branch of the race now settled in Eastern Europe. Originally introduced as mercenaries into the Saracen armies, they gradually became the masters of the various Mahometan provinces, and ruled supreme over Western Asia, defeating the Greek Emperors and winning nearly all their Asiatic provinces. In 1076 they made a conquest which embroiled them with Western Europe also, and gave rise to a series of wars lasting over nearly two centuries. For in 1076 they conquered Jerusalem. Now Jerusalem had always been the goal of all Christian pilgrims, and in the life of the Middle Ages pilgrimages were an important feature. There had indeed been considerable danger and difficulty in the journey since the Saracens became masters of the Holy City, but the Turks made access to it practically impossible, and it was felt by all Europe that a great effort must be made to rescue the Holy Places from the infidels and to render it easy for devout Christians to visit them.

The First Crusade, 1096.—Accordingly Christians were called upon by a Council of the Church, summoned by Pope Urban II., to take up arms for the conquest of Jerusalem, and they responded in thousands. It may seem curious that such unity of spirit should have been

displayed, but it must be remembered that in the eleventh century the idea of nationality was not so developed as it is to-day, and that French, English, and Germans could co-operate without suspicion or jealousy, especially when their kings were not at war one with another. There was feudal rivalry but little national rivalry, for the nationality of that day was Christianity, with the Pope for its sovereign, and the Turk, or Moslem, its greatest enemy; and therefore the Crusade preached by Peter the Hermit and the Pope's servants aroused the wildest enthusiasm throughout Christian Europe.

Two great bodies set out for the East in 1096, each taking as its motto "It is God's will!" The first was composed of poor people, badly armed, and with no real idea of the difficulty of the task. They were led by Peter the Hermit, but never accomplished anything, those who finally reached Palestine falling easy victims to the Turks. It was otherwise with the great army of knights drawn from all nations, especially from France, which reached Constantinople in 1097 and passed over into Asia Minor. After much suffering and heavy fighting they captured Jerusalem in 1099, and elected Godfrey de Bouillon as king. Other small states were also founded, but most of the Crusaders returned home, and those who remained had great difficulty in resisting the repeated attacks of the Turks. However, they were occasionally reinforced by small bodies of knights and contrived to maintain the kingdom of Jerusalem for one hundred years.

The Feudal System.—In the history of Europe during the Middle Ages constant references to the Feudal System are found, and it becomes necessary to explain that system in order to give a clear idea of the prevailing political and social conditions of the time. Feudalism is the name

given to a state of society based upon property in land. It arose probably from a combination of the Roman practice of granting lands on condition of military service with the Teutonic system of grouping round a particular leader. Naturally, as the Teutonic peoples conquered the Roman Empire, the leaders of the different groups acquired large tracts of land, and these they divided out among the followers who had aided their successes. Gradually the principle of personal allegiance came to be firmly established, and in return for a grant of land it was clearly understood that the receiver should give advice, military service, and on certain occasions money to his lord. In return for this, besides the use of the land, he got protection by his lord, and in those days the desire for such protection induced many men to surrender their lands voluntarily to a powerful chief. And this double bond of rights and obligations between lord and "vassal" went through all stages of society, from the king, through his great lords and the lesser nobles, to the last man who held any land at all. Below these came the serfs or villeins, men with no rights at all, who could be bought or sold with the land to which they belonged, and who could not leave it without the consent of their lord. They were not exactly slaves, but their condition was not much better than slavery.

Land, therefore, was all-important in the Middle Ages, and its bestowal was accompanied with much ceremony. The vassal did homage to his lord, promising to be his man and swearing fidelity, and was then invested with his "feudum" or fief, as the piece of land was called, which he in his turn could hand over to others if they promised him the same service. The position of the lord was one of great power, for he had the right of private war, of private jurisdiction, and of private coinage, and each of these

rights was freely used. Thus it is easy to understand the difficulty which the kings of France and Germany found in dealing with their great nobles. Kings were obliged to give away such large portions of their domain to their followers that the great dukes were almost as powerful as their masters, and the result was anarchy, for the lord had in practice no power unless he could compel his vassals to keep their oaths of service. The Feudal System was most highly developed in France and Germany. In England William the Conqueror, who had learned its dangers in France, never allowed the great nobles to obtain power enough to be a serious menace to the Crown, and the old local and national Assemblies never quite died out. He insisted that the vassals of a rebellious tenant of his still owed allegiance direct to him, not to their immediate lord. But all over Europe the Feudal System formed the foundation of society throughout the Middle Ages, and traces of it remain in modern times.

England and France.—Some of the worst features of Feudalism are exemplified in the relations of England and France at the period now treated of, during the greater part of which England was regarded as merely an adjunct to the continental possessions of her kings. William I. died making war against his over-lord, and his sons were constantly embroiled with their nominal superior. But the great danger that France ran in the union of Normandy and England under one ruler was shown unmistakably in the reign of Henry II. Henry's mother had married the Count of Anjou, and Henry himself had married Eleanor of Guienne, heiress of Aquitaine and Poitou. He therefore controlled, besides England and those parts of Ireland which were conquered in his reign, nearly the whole of western France, for which he had to

pay homage to the French king, who was much less powerful than his vassal. There can be little doubt that the whole of France would have been conquered by Henry, but for the constant quarrels in England, first between Henry and Becket on the question of ecclesiastical jurisdiction, and afterwards between the king and his own sons, quarrels which the French king of course encouraged. The struggle with Becket, resulting in the murder of the Archbishop (1170), was especially damaging to Henry, as it brought on him the displeasure of the Church.

Henry's sons, Richard and John, did not succeed in maintaining the commanding position he had acquired in France. Richard went on a Crusade with the French king, but they soon quarrelled, and on Richard's return war broke out in Normandy, occasioned by French intrigue and aggression. When John succeeded, the king of France supported the claim of Arthur, John's nephew, to the English crown, and by taking that side was able to recover many of the possessions that Henry had accumulated. For John made great mistakes: he murdered Arthur, he quarrelled with the Pope, and he quarrelled with his own barons, and in consequence met defeat in every direction. In France he lost Anjou, Touraine, Poitou, and even Normandy; in England he was obliged in 1215 to grant the Great Charter, the foundation of English liberty and, as he did not keep the promises then made, he was deposed and the son of the French king was actually chosen king of England. John died soon afterwards; but although the English returned to their allegiance to his son Henry III., they could not recover the lost provinces, the duchy of Guienne alone being retained. What England lost, however, the kings of France gained, and it is during this period that they laid

the foundations of that power which at a later date became absolute. They had got rid of their most formidable rivals, and their policy of encouraging the large towns created a useful weapon for service against the great nobles.

The increased power of the French kings at this period is displayed in their interference in the general politics of Europe, St. Louis undertaking two Crusades, and one of his brothers establishing himself in southern Italy in 1265, having been called in by the Pope against Manfred, the son of Frederick II.

The Empire and the Papacy. Guelfs and Ghibellines.—The quarrel about Investitures between the Popes and Emperors, which had been settled by the Concordat of Worms in 1122, was not followed by a lasting peace. The rebellion of the Duke of Saxony was the occasion of a brief truce, but when that was over another great struggle began which lasted for a hundred years. The dispute was about the interference of the Emperor in Italian affairs and in Papal elections. Italy at that time was made up of a great number of small independent lordships and republican towns, and as the larger towns increased in strength they were less and less inclined to obey the orders of the Emperor. At length in the middle of the twelfth century Rome itself threw off the government of the Pope and became a republic also. Thereupon Frederick Barbarossa, or Red-beard, decided to put an end to this system and to re-establish the imperial power in Italy, and this was the beginning of the quarrel between Guelfs and Ghibellines. The Ghibellines were the supporters of the Emperors, the Guelfs were the adherents of the Popes. Frederick was at first very successful (1154), restoring the Pope and vanquishing all his enemies, till the

Pope, fearing that the Emperor would become too powerful in Italy, allied himself with the Italian cities.

The war continued for many years, the cities being supported by the kingdom of Sicily and the Emperor of the East, and there were rival Popes, as Frederick caused supporters of his own to be elected in opposition to the Pope who was hostile to him. Finally, however, the Emperor, weakened by a rebellion in Saxony, was defeated, and in the Treaty of Constance in 1183 the independence of the Italian towns was practically recognised. The Popes and Italy were thus again victorious, for the independence of Italy meant the independence of Rome, and the Popes elected by Frederick were recognised as false. But, though thus unsuccessful, Frederick was the greatest prince of his day, feared by his subjects and looked up to by all the states of Europe; and on his death he became, like our King Arthur, the centre of numerous legends.

The Later Crusades.—The kingdom of Jerusalem, founded by the first Crusaders in 1099, was supported partly by small bands of knights who went out from time to time to aid in the defence of the city, but chiefly by the two great military Orders, the Knights of St. John and the Knights Templars, warrior monks vowed to the service of the Church. But these reinforcements were not large, and on the whole they effected very little. Thus the Second Crusade, in 1147, led by the Emperor Conrad and the king of France, was a failure in its results, and few of the warriors returned.

But in 1187 Jerusalem was again conquered by Saladin, who had united the Mahometan empire and brought it back to great power. The Christians were penned up in a corner of Palestine, and the Pope preached a grand Crusade for the recovery of the Holy City. The Third

Crusade set out in 1189, supported by Frederick Barbarossa, and by the kings of France and England. Barbarossa died on the way, and very few of his army reached Palestine. The king of France soon quarrelled with Richard I. and returned home, and Richard's heroic efforts could not reconquer Jerusalem, though they won permission for pilgrims to visit it unmolested. The Fourth Crusade must be spoken of separately, for though it never arrived in Palestine, it played an important part in European history. After it there were several others, but the object of most was to attack Egypt, as the great seat of the Mahometan power. St. Louis, king of France, led two expeditions to Africa, on the second of which he died, but the only real success was achieved by peaceful means. The Emperor Frederick II. won Jerusalem by treaty and was crowned there, but the success was transient, and the last vestige of Christian dominion in Palestine was lost with Acre in 1291.

The Fourth Crusade and the Latin Empire of Constantinople.—In 1202 Pope Innocent III. preached a Crusade which was not taken up by any kings, but mainly by adventurous nobles, who assembled at Venice and asked for ships from the Republic. Venice, which had always been independent of the Western Empire, mainly by reason of her position, was now a very powerful naval state. The ships were lent, but on condition that the Crusaders should conquer certain territories for the republic. Having accomplished this, they undertook to replace a deposed prince on the throne of the East. Constantinople was captured by them in 1204, and the Eastern Empire came to an end. It had perhaps deserved no better fate, but some of the later Emperors had tried to benefit by the Crusades, and had indeed extended their

Asiatic provinces. But the subsequent condition of the Empire was pitiable. Venice took the ports and the islands, while the remainder was divided among the conquerors on the feudal plan. Anarchy prevailed until, in 1261, Michael Palaeologus re-established some sort of unity, which lasted till the final conquest by the Turks in 1453. The Eastern Empire, however, after 1204 can no longer be reckoned as an important factor in European history.

Crusades in Europe.—The period from 1096 to 1270 is called the Epoch of the Crusades, not merely on account of the expeditions to Palestine and the East, although they were perhaps the most important, but because during the greater part of the time wars were going on in various parts of Europe against the enemies of the Church. Originally these wars, like the First Crusade, were directed against the infidels, but later on they were waged against peoples who did not hold quite the same form of Christianity as the Popes, and finally the Popes went so far as to proclaim Crusades against their own personal enemies. The first extension of the idea was made in the war begun in 1205 against a sect called the Albigenses, who lived in the south of France and held doctrines that were regarded as heretical. The sect was crushed out of existence by a savage persecution carried on by the father of the famous Simon de Montfort.

After this first experiment the Popes went on to preach Crusades against Frederick II., and it was as the result of one of these that Naples fell into the hands of the French, while Sicily was conquered shortly afterwards. Religious warfare of a less questionable character was, however, going on in other parts of Europe against the heathen on the outskirts of civilisation. Poland had become Christian, but all the peoples to the north and east were

still unconverted, and of these the Russians and Prussians were the most powerful. There were no expeditions on the scale of the other Crusades, but the great Order of Teutonic Knights went to the aid of Poland in 1230 and waged continual war against the heathen, winning much territory and influence.

Spain and the Mahometans.—In Spain, the only other part of Europe where the infidels maintained a footing, war was constantly going on throughout the Middle Ages. The Christians had never been wholly subjugated, and by slow degrees they drove back the Mahometans. After the tenth century the Moorish power began to decline, and the kingdoms of Castile, Aragon, and Navarre, fired by the example of the Crusades, gradually forced their way southwards. There were many changes of fortune, for new invaders came from Africa and reinforced the Moors, but in 1212 the Christians won a great victory at Tolosa, and henceforth their fortune held the ascendant. The Moors were confined to the kingdom of Granada in the south, the rest of Spain being divided into four kingdoms, Portugal having been added to the original three.

Results of the Crusades.—The Crusades for the recovery of Jerusalem, which may be regarded as the great Crusades, failed in their object. But it must not be supposed that they left no traces upon the Middle Ages. They were undertaken, under the impulse of a religious fervour such as the modern world can scarcely realise, by thousands of men drawn from all classes, and a movement of such magnitude must needs have great results.

In the first place they opposed a barrier to the rise of the Mahometan power, which at that time menaced all Europe, and it is doubtful whether any other motive than religious zeal could in that age have brought about the

necessary combination of forces. The power of the Church and of the Papacy was also greatly increased, for it was recognised that with them lay the initiative in the enterprise. The Crusaders were the servants of the Church, although many went on a Crusade merely to gain territories for themselves; and this position is made clear by the later development of Crusades preached against the Pope's enemies. The kings gained also, for the holy wars drew off many of their most unruly subjects, who went in quest of adventures and never returned. Crusades were better than civil wars, and Europe enjoyed more tranquillity than she had for a long period, and as a consequence the towns began to develop and to play an important part in political life. They were often able to buy privileges from the nobles who wanted money for the Crusades, and the growth of commerce resulting from the increased intercourse among the nations put great riches into their hands. Moreover, the Crusaders learned much from their enemies, for the Mahometans had made great progress in learning and civilisation, and the result of their mutual intercourse tended naturally to more enlightened views and considerable progress in art and science.

Frederick II.—Frederick Barbarossa's son only reigned long enough to add Sicily to his dominions, and on his death rival claimants to the Empire appeared. But in a few years Barbarossa's grandson Frederick II. grew up and put forward his claim to the throne. Pope Innocent III., who had been elected to the Papacy in 1198, was his great supporter, and in 1218 Frederick did actually become Emperor. But on his refusal to surrender the kingdom of Naples and Sicily as he had promised, he was embroiled with the Pope. Innocent III., who was one of the greatest of the Popes, was bent upon maintaining the

power of the Church over the kings. It was he who deposed and excommunicated John of England, and he interfered also in the affairs of Spain, Norway, and Hungary. Frederick II., however, braved his authority and that of the succeeding Popes, and his reign was consequently one continuous struggle with Rome, and Italy was again convulsed by the warring factions of the Guelfs and Ghibellines. Frederick, who was the most accomplished man of the age, and called "the Wonder of the World" on account of his great learning and ability, was as unfortunate as Barbarossa had been.

In his own kingdom of Sicily Frederick was supreme, but in Italy and Germany the Popes were able to stir up his nobles against him, and his power began to wane. The Italian cities also joined the Popes, and though Frederick allied himself with the Saracens he could not restore his authority. He was formally deposed and excommunicated by the Pope, and when he died in 1250 the supremacy of Germany over Italy was gone, for in this struggle the power of the Emperors in Italy was finally destroyed by the Popes and their French allies in 1268 at Tagliacozza. The Empire was confined to Germany, for Sicily did not pass to the next Emperors, but was conquered by the French from Frederick's son Manfred, and remained with Naples a separate kingdom. The great struggle between Pope and Emperor was decided in favour of the former, and Italy was left to work out its own destiny, under the guidance of the Popes and the great towns, while even in Germany the imperial power was weakened by the long struggle.

The Power of the Church.—During this period the authority of the Papacy reached perhaps its greatest height. The influence of the Crusades in establishing the

position of the Pope as the spiritual head of the world has already been mentioned. The result of the struggle with the Emperors was of no less importance. Pope and Emperor each claimed to be the "Vicar of God" on earth, and the victory of the Popes over the greatest temporal princes of the Middle Ages seemed to prove their contention of superiority. In the thirteenth century, therefore, the Papal power may be considered to be at its zenith. The Popes interfered in the affairs of every country in Christendom, and to defy their authority was very dangerous, as John had found in England; for excommunication was a formidable weapon and there was always a rival or a rebellious nobility ready to take advantage of the Pope's wish to punish any one who opposed him. And thus Rome had a great share in controlling the policy of each country, a share that was rendered yet more important by the position of the bishops in the councils of the various nations.

Nor was this all, for the Popes taxed the clergy in all countries, and appointed their friends to the bishoprics and livings. Moreover, the exemption of the clergy from the ordinary laws made them a separate caste, and caused much discontent until it was removed, as in the quarrel of Henry II. and Becket. And lastly, the rise of the Mendicant Friars in the thirteenth century added yet another source of power to the Church by causing a revival of religious feeling among the lower classes, over whom the regular clergy and the monastic orders had ceased to exercise much influence. St. Dominic and St. Francis founded their famous orders in 1216 and 1223, and several others followed their example; and their immediate and triumphant success placed the Papacy in the possession of two great armies, admirably disciplined, penetrating into

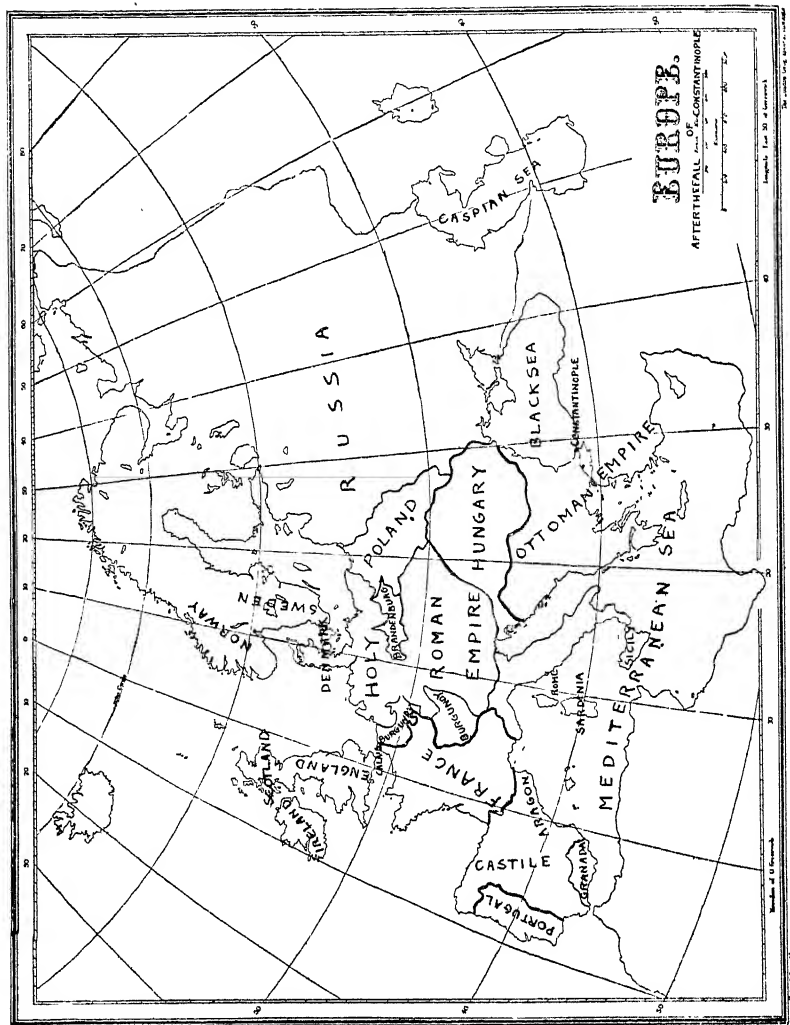
every part of Europe, maintained without cost, and vowed to an absolute and unquestioning fidelity. But the supremacy of the Popes was not destined to last very long, and its decay forms one of the striking features of the succeeding period.

The Growth of Towns.—The development of commerce and industry brought about by the Crusades helped onward the growth of the towns to a position of importance in medieval society. Commerce and industry brought wealth; wealth enabled them to purchase privileges from their lords, and in time we find them forming in defence of their interests leagues, capable, as in the case of the Lombard towns, of successfully resisting powerful sovereigns like Barbarossa and Frederick II. As the Mediterranean was still the centre of political and commercial life, and the Italian towns were on the trade route to the East, municipal life naturally developed earliest in them. Venice, Genoa, and Pisa were the great naval powers of Europe, and the Lombard towns were unmatched throughout the West. But the German cities were also assuming a position of importance in the Empire, where they helped to balance the power of the great nobles. The Hanseatic League, headed by Hamburg and Lübeck, was rising to a position of great power and influence in the North of Europe. And in England it was largely due to the combination of the burghers with the nobility that it had been found possible to set English liberties on a sound footing during the reign of John, when the Great Charter was wrung from the Crown, and in the reign of his son, when it was put into effective working.

CHAPTER IV.

The Close of the Middle Ages.

The Close of the Middle Ages.—The period between the last Crusades and the dawn of modern history, which may be said to commence with the discoveries of Christopher Columbus, is a period of transition. The great forces we have seen in action in previous centuries, if they do not actually retire from the stage, are relegated to minor parts, and new characters appear in their places. Thus the Empire and the Papacy sink into insignificance, while France rises to a position of supreme importance. So also does Spain, after having long been prevented by her struggles with the Moors from interfering with effect in the general course of European history. England still remains somewhat aloof from the rest of the nations, though her long struggle with France is a salient feature of the period. Switzerland and Burgundy assume for a moment the rôle of great powers, and in the East the old Empire at Constantinople dies an inglorious death, while the power of Russia is beginning to consolidate itself. But the importance of the period lies in its culmination in the discovery of America, which revolutionised the thought and action of the world. The Mediterranean ceases after many ages to be the focus of the world's interest, and the political centre of gravity unmistakably shifts westwards.



The Empire, 1250-1453.—When Frederick II. died in 1250 the weakness of the Empire at once became apparent, for until 1273 there were continual civil wars for the possession of his throne. Various princes were chosen as Emperors, but none of them was generally acknowledged, and hence the period 1254-1273 is known as the *Great Interregnum*. Anarchy and violence prevailed throughout Germany, each noble and city taking the opportunity to assert fresh privileges and to win, wherever possible, fresh territory. The cities especially were oppressed by the minor nobility, and were forced to combine in order to resist their attacks. The Hanseatic League, in particular, at this time became very strong both in numbers and influence, for, as it undertook to put down both pillage by land and piracy by sea, it was joined by the great towns along the Rhine, as well as by the seaports. The German burghers were really the most flourishing part of the nation, for the trade from the East filtered through the cities of Italy to the Rhine and North Germany, whence it was distributed, bringing in great wealth.

At length in 1273 Rudolf of Habsburg was elected Emperor, and comparative quiet was restored, although the imperial authority still commanded scant obedience. The Emperors, having no power abroad, were able to devote themselves to increasing their private dominions, and Rudolf himself was able, by defeating the king of Bohemia, to found the Habsburg house of Austria, which still reigns in that country. His sons also endeavoured to enlarge their territory in Alsace, and this brought them into conflict with the Swiss mountaineers. The Swiss had always claimed complete independence, and the Three Cantons—Uri, Schwyz, and Unterwalden—led, according to tradition, by William Tell, carried on a long struggle in

defence of their liberties against the Austrians. They were gradually joined by five other cantons, and in 1386, at the battle of Sempach, they finally secured the freedom they had vindicated in 1315 at Morgarten. Their liberties were not again assailed until the rise of Burgundy nearly a century later. But this was not the only loss sustained by the Habsburgs, for in 1308 the Empire passed to the House of Luxemburg, who established themselves as kings of Bohemia. Under them the imperial power declined steadily, or was wasted in fruitless expeditions into Italy.

In 1356 the mode of electing the Emperors was definitely settled by a charter called the *Golden Bull*, which still further diminished their powers, and vested the election in the seven great princes of the Empire—the Archbishops of Cologne, Trèves, and Mayence, and the Electors of Saxony, Bohemia, Brandenburg, and the Palatinate. In the early part of the fifteenth century the Empire was convulsed by the disastrous and ignominious war which broke out in consequence of the burning of John Huss. Huss had been the leader of a religious revival in Germany similar to that of Wycliffe in England, and when the Council of Constance put him to death in 1415 a revolt took place in Bohemia, where his doctrines had taken firm root. The Emperor Sigismund could do little to cope with these disorders and his armies were repeatedly defeated, but at length dissensions arose among the Hussites, and their power was destroyed at the battle of Lippau in 1434. In 1438 the crown returned to the Habsburg family, never again to leave it, for experience had shown that the Emperor must be a prince powerful by reason of his own possessions. Frederick III. during his long reign (1440-1493) devoted himself to the care of his Austrian dominions, and allowed

Germany to return to a state of anarchy. Private war prevailed everywhere, and an effective central control was the crying need of Germany at the close of the Middle Ages.

France and England: the Hundred Years' War.—While the Empire was thus falling into decay, France, in spite of some vicissitudes, was rising to a position of great power. Guienne alone remained of all England's continental possessions when Edward I. came to the throne, and even on this duchy the French king cast covetous eyes. War, however, was averted during this reign by the agency of the Pope, and Edward was able to carry out the conquest of Wales and Scotland. The French king, Philip the Fair, endeavoured, though unsuccessfully, to compensate himself by the acquisition of territory in Flanders. His reign was also marked by the suppression of the Order of the Templars, and the confiscation of their great possessions, and by his quarrels with the Pope on the question of the taxation of the clergy. It was not until the direct line of the Capetian kings ended in 1328 that the rivalry of France and England broke out in the long struggle called the Hundred Years' War.

First Period.—According to the Salic law, an old Frankish custom, no female could succeed to the throne, and the crown of France therefore passed to Philip VI., a nephew of Philip the Fair. Edward III., however, was, on his mother's side, grandson of Philip the Fair, and he claimed that, while a woman could not occupy the French throne, she could transmit her rights to her children, and that he, as representative of the older line, was rightful heir to the monarchy. Yet even on this ground his claims were inferior to those of a third candidate, and it may be concluded that Edward did not care whether his arguments

were good or bad if he could only win some French territory. But in this he was not at first very successful. The war began in 1339, and it was not until 1346 that a great victory was won at Crécy and Calais captured, while in 1356 another raid ended successfully in a French defeat at Poitiers. The misery caused by the war both in France and England was increased by a terrible plague, called the *Black Death*, which swept over Europe between 1347 and 1350, carrying off a large portion of the population. In 1360 Edward stopped the war for a time by the Treaty of Bretigny, which ceded him Calais and Aquitaine—a poor result, supported as he had been by the cities of Flanders and by the Emperor. But he did not keep these conquests long, for Aquitaine soon revolted, and the English had wasted their forces by fruitless expeditions into Spain. The cities supported the Black Prince, but elsewhere he could do nothing, and by 1380 the English were almost expelled from France. A few seaport towns such as Calais and Bordeaux represented all that had been won by years of warfare.

Second Period.—From 1380 to 1415 the war practically ceased, for both England and France were in the throes of domestic troubles, which prevented them from prosecuting the general quarrel. In England the troublous times of Richard II. and Henry IV., with the civil wars attendant on the change of dynasty, were at last succeeded by the strong reign of Henry V.; but in France the quarrel between the family of Orleans, whose followers were known as Armagnacs, and the dukes of Burgundy, could not be terminated owing to the want of a controlling hand from the king, who was almost a lunatic. Henry V. was anxious to divert the attention of the English from home affairs, and therefore took advantage of the anarchy in

France to invade the country in 1415. He won a great victory at Agincourt in the same year, and overran France so completely that in 1420 he was able to dictate the Treaty of Troyes, by which he was recognised as heir to the French crown. Henry V., however, died in 1422, and though the English maintained the upper hand for a short time, a national revival of the French, led by Joan of Arc, soon swept the invaders before it. Joan was a mere peasant girl, inspired by intense patriotism and religious fervour, but she restored the French monarchy, for in 1429 she raised the siege of Orleans, the last stronghold north of the Loire that the English had to conquer, and from that time they were steadily driven back. The English being distracted by civil war at home, their power in France declined steadily, and in 1453 they had lost all their French possessions with the one exception of Calais.

England during the Hundred Years' War.—The period from 1270 to 1492 is very important in the history of England, and must be reviewed briefly to show the increasing connection between our affairs and those of the Continent. In 1282 the unity of the southern part of the island was completed by the conquest of Wales, and Edward I. made a great effort to unite Scotland also to his crown. He succeeded for a time, but his son speedily lost the new acquisition (1314), and the chief result of the attempt at union was that Scotland became the bitter enemy of England, and the sworn ally of England's great foe, France, whom she was always ready to help on every occasion. Under the Tudors this close connection between France and Scotland proved a grave danger to England.

The period was in another respect of great importance for England, for it comprehends the definite establishment of the Parliamentary system. In 1295 representatives of

the towns came to the Model Parliament, and in 1333 Parliament separated into two Houses—Lords and Commons. The need of money for the French wars increased the power of Parliament greatly. Thus in 1399 the Lancastrian Henry IV. thought it advisable to induce Parliament to acknowledge his right to the Crown. Under Henry VI., however, the authority of the great council of the nation fell into abeyance during the feudal anarchy of the Wars of the Roses, caused by the dispute as to the succession between the Lancastrian and Yorkist families. England lost all influence in the affairs of Europe, and anarchy was rampant throughout the country. Consequently, when at last Henry VII. contrived to unite the two factions and restore peace, it was felt that the prosperity of the country demanded a strong government.

From this feeling was derived the power of the Tudor monarchy, under which Parliament was a nonentity, doing little more than register the decrees of the sovereign. Yet the Houses preserved their existence, and were ready for use when under the Stuarts the Crown went a step too far towards absolute dominion. Thus the middle classes had established their claim to a place in the Constitution, while the Wars of the Roses had performed the useful task of breaking up the power of the feudal nobility, which elsewhere in Europe proved a great stumbling-block to progress. The noble houses destroyed one another, while the towns to a great extent held aloof from the dispute and devoted their energies to commerce and industry, and the Church had been driven to side with the Crown owing to the Lollard movement started by Wycliffe.

The Growth of the French Monarchy.—The development of the royal power as shown in the Tudor dynasty is a general characteristic of the end of the Middle Ages.

Empire and Papacy, with their claims to universal dominion, are declining, and in their places are rising other powers, governing a smaller area, but with a fuller and more uncontested sway. The monarchy of France especially is typical of this movement. St. Louis had added greatly to the influence of the Crown by his piety: his more mundane successors increased it by the acquisition of considerable territories. The stress of the English invasions tended to unite different interests in the defence of the country, and the alliance of the Crown with the "third estate" or middle class against the nobles assured it very useful support, while the domineering influence of the Church was largely counterbalanced by the growing power of the French lawyers, who all favoured the extension of the royal power, and were rapidly acquiring an almost absolute sway over the French Parliaments.

For a time, however, all progress was stopped by the terrible outbreak of the peasantry in 1358 (the Jacquerie), and afterwards by the rivalry of Armagnacs and Burgundians for the control of the Crown; and it was only when the English were driven out that the task of consolidating the monarchy was resumed. The experiment tried in 1355 of summoning the "States-General" (the French equivalent at that day of our Parliament) having resulted in disastrous outbreaks, the kings now tried absolute rule. The conquered English provinces became the property of the French crown. The Kings had mastered the Popes; they had undertaken the reform of the government. The administration of justice was secured, commerce and industry were encouraged, the army was reorganised, and the monarchy of France was ready, under Louis XI., to meet the power of Burgundy, the last of its vassals able to threaten its existence.

The Rise and Fall of Burgundy.—The great Duchy of Burgundy originated in the French practice of granting out the fiefs of the Crown to members of the royal family. The Burgundian territory included, besides the duchy, a large part of the lands now called Belgium and Holland, and the dukes drew great revenues from the wealthy and important cities with which these were studded. The power of the dukes of Burgundy was therefore naturally very great, and the fate of France often depended on their help or opposition. Thus their alliance with Henry V. went far to decide the defeat of the French, and their return to allegiance in 1435 rendered the task of expelling the invaders far easier. It was of course impossible that the French kings should accept permanently such a state of affairs, and the far-seeing Louis XI. soon quarrelled with his too-powerful neighbour. Burgundy, however, was joined by some of the other great duchies, notably Brittany, in the "League of the Public Weal," and Louis sustained a severe defeat. Thereupon he determined to use diplomacy instead of force, and in this he succeeded much better. He first detached Brittany from Burgundy, and then set himself to raise trouble in the Burgundian duke's dominions.

But in 1472 Charles the Bold, duke of Burgundy, changed his policy too, and ceased to take much interest in French affairs, turning his attention mainly to the increase of his dominions in Germany. It would seem as though he contemplated reviving the "middle kingdom" between France and Germany which played a leading part in the days of Charlemagne's successors. This change of policy embroiled Charles with the Swiss, who were persuaded by Louis that such plans were a danger to their independence. War broke out and Charles' army was completely defeated by the Swiss infantry, then the finest soldiers in Europe.

In 1477 he was killed at Nancy, and his dominions passed to a daughter, who married Maximilian, the Emperor's son. Burgundy was destined in the next century to form part of the vast Spanish monarchy, but for the present France was freed from her most formidable enemy. Louis XI. even secured a small part of Charles' territory, and at his death in 1483 he left France an absolute monarchy, with boundaries nearly as large as those of to-day. France had become one of the most powerful states in Europe, and the next century was to be largely occupied by her struggle with Spain for the supremacy of Europe.

Decline of the Papacy.—The victory of the Popes in their great struggle with the Emperors had been complete, but they were not destined to enjoy its fruits long. It seemed that the contest had exhausted the strength of both parties, for while Germany was smitten by the paralysis of the Great Interregnum, the zenith of the Papal power was reached and passed under Boniface VIII., who reigned from 1294 to 1303, only fifty years after the death of Frederick II. The pretensions and the arrogance of the Papacy reached their height under Boniface, and in Germany and Italy he was able to carry matters with a high hand; but in Philip the Fair, king of France, he met an able, crafty, and vindictive antagonist, by whom he was signally defeated.

The taxation of the clergy was the principal ground of the quarrel, and Philip succeeded in gaining the support of the States General. The threats of the Pope and his spiritual weapons were treated with contempt; his person was seized, and he suffered the grossest indignity from the king's agents in Italy. Boniface did not long survive the outrage. All Christendom was appalled at his fate, which was the herald of even darker days for the Church. In

1309 a French Pope was chosen, who moved the seat of his government from Rome to Avignon on the Rhone. From 1309, therefore, until 1376, when they returned to Rome, the Popes were practically under the control of the French kings, and hence the period is called by the Italian writers the Babylonish Captivity of the Popes. As was only natural, the power of the Papacy in Europe declined very greatly, for the other countries were unwilling to acknowledge the authority of a Pope residing on French territory and consequently under the influence of the French king.

The Councils.—Not even the return to Rome, however, could restore the power of the Popes, for it was followed by a scandal even greater than the Babylonish Captivity. The French kings were unwilling to lose the influence they had enjoyed through the Popes, and accordingly they had a rival Pope chosen. Thus the Church was divided, and the “Great Schism,” as it was called, split Europe into two opposing camps. The only way to settle the question was to return to the old practice of holding a General Council of the great dignitaries of the Church from all countries. Such a Council met at Pisa in 1409, but it served no purpose; for the two existing Popes would not give way to the Pope chosen by the Council, so that the position was only made worse, and the Papacy became a byword and a scandal.

But, besides all this, grave discontent was everywhere felt by the most faithful sons of the Church. The worldliness, the hypocrisy, the vices of the clergy had raised a dangerous spirit in every country, and everywhere were to be heard the first mutterings of the storm which a century later was to burst in the Reformation. Wycliffe in England and Huss in Bohemia were preaching doctrines which

struck at the root of the whole hierarchical system. Pardons, indulgences, pilgrimages, excommunications, even the doctrines of transubstantiation and absolution were the objects of daring criticism or open denunciation, and the teaching of the reformers was received by the commonalty with an eagerness which was full of evil omen for the established order. At length, in 1414, a second General Council met at Constance, determined to put an end to the abuses in the Church, and the Papal schism was ended in 1417 by the election of Martin V. But the opportunity of reforming the Church was allowed to pass, nor was the Council of Basle, which met in 1431, marked by any real effort to deal with the crying evil of the time, the worldliness and immorality of the clergy. The Hus-sites were at length suppressed by force of arms, but not until Bohemia and a large part of Germany had been desolated in the shock of opposing fanaticisms.

The Reformation was postponed, but it could not be avoided. For some time the Popes were little more than Italian princes, chiefly solicitous about their temporal power, while the lower clergy had for the most part ceased to set an example of pure and self-sacrificing life. Nor did the changed mode of thought which came in with the Renaissance bring with it any improvement in the spirit which animated the priesthood, since, though the movement had their fullest sympathy, it produced in them nothing higher than a refined Epicureanism, oblivious of everything but the development of art and the growth of luxury.

Italy in the Later Middle Ages.—The centre of the movement called the Renaissance (New Birth) was in the cities of Italy. The leagues of the great towns had been successful in preserving their independence from the

control of the Emperors. But in order to do this they had been obliged to hire soldiers (*condottieri*), and in many places the leaders of these mercenary bands established themselves as rulers of the cities that they were hired to defend.

In other cases the rulers had been the governors (*podestà*) whom the Emperors had set up to maintain their authority. All these petty potentates were anxious to extend their control over the neighbouring cities, and constant wars were the result. In 1447, when it fell into the hands of the Sforza family, Milan was the most important state in Northern Italy under princely rule, its only rivals, Venice and Florence, being still republican in constitution.

Venice, successful after long struggles in defeating her old rival Genoa, which suffered from internal dissensions, had become very powerful in the East; in fact after the fall of Constantinople in 1453 she was the only power left to resist the Turks. But the constant wars in the Levant tended to weaken her resources, and the hope of increasing her territory in Italy began to tempt her to outbid Milan for land-power. Venice was at this time a close oligarchy, that is, governed by a few great families; while Florence, the third great city of northern Italy, was still in the hands of a democracy. Even in Florence, however, the government was slowly passing into the hands of one great family, the Medici, who were destined to play a very important part in the history of the sixteenth century. In southern Italy the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily took the place of the duchies and republics of the north, and the central districts were ruled by the Popes.

Rienzi had tried to revive the Roman Republic during the residence of the Popes at Avignon (1354), but the attempt

had been very short-lived. Naples still belonged to a branch of the royal family of France, but Sicily had passed to the crown of Aragon as a result of the Sicilian Vespers in 1282, a revolt caused by the unbearable licentiousness and cruelty of the French garrison. Both the southern kingdoms were far behind the great towns in civilisation and material welfare, for the latter in spite of their constant wars were ever extending their commerce and intercourse with other nations. Wealth had brought increase of leisure and enlightenment, and since the twelfth century there had been a growing desire to escape from the bonds of ignorance in which mankind had been kept during the preceding period.

All teaching in the early Middle Ages was theological, and intended to support and prove the doctrines of religion; knowledge of any other character was regarded with suspicion. The introduction to Greek and Saracen learning acquired through the Crusades had rather damaged this theory, and the Italian cities led the way in opening up the new fields of knowledge to Western Europe. A genuine enthusiasm for literature and the arts was soon aroused, and in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries Dante, Boccaccio, and Petrarch are the leaders in a movement constantly increasing in weight and intensity. When Constantinople fell, many Greeks came to Italy, bringing with them their language and whatever was still preserved of the old learning, and opening up a new world to the student of literature and art.

And almost at the same time came the invention of printing, with all its wonderful possibilities for the spread of the new learning. The inventor, Gutenberg, was a German; but it was in Italy that printing proved at first most valuable, for it was in Italy at the beginning of the

sixteenth century that the Renaissance most flourished, under the fostering care of the great families that controlled Venice, Milan, Rome, and above all Florence.

The Fall of Constantinople.—The final disappearance of the Greek Empire may be regarded as one of the great landmarks in European history, second only in interest to the discovery of the New World, which shortly followed it. While the latter opened up an almost boundless field for European enterprise, the former closed a large section of the world to the western nations by bringing it under the rule of a fierce military people, which threatened to carry its conquests still farther west.

The Ottoman Turks had begun to make their power felt early in the thirteenth century, and under a succession of able chiefs they soon established their dominion over a large part of Asia. They then turned their arms against the Greek Empire, which was a prey to internal dissensions, and by 1400 they had cut it off on the north from the rest of Europe, Servia and Bulgaria having been conquered by them after a bloody struggle. The Turkish soldiery was the finest of the period. Their famous troops, the Janissaries, were made up of men who had been taken from their Christian parents as tribute when children, and trained to warfare all their lives; and as at that time no prince in Christendom had a regular body of infantry in constant exercise and pay, their superiority was decisive of every struggle, and the Greek Empire to all appearance was doomed to speedy destruction.

A respite was occasioned by the Tartar invasion under Timour, or Tamerlane, whose Mongol hordes swept down on the Turkish Empire and defeated the sultan, Bajazet, in 1402. But the Tartar empire fell to pieces on Timour's death, while the Ottoman power speedily revived, and in

1451 the siege of Constantinople was begun by Mahomet II. In 1453 the city fell, after a brave resistance, and the Turks soon spread over Greece, though the Venetians still retained a few towns and several of the islands, the most important of which was Crete. The Greek Empire, however, was at an end, and in its place a new nation had appeared—a race alien in blood and religion, and destined for both reasons to remain outside the political system of Europe.

Russia and Poland.—While the Turks were thus gaining a permanent footing in Europe, the Slavs were also extending their influence. Poland was the most powerful of the Slavonic kingdoms, and under the house of Jagellon it led the resistance to the threatened domination by Germany through the Teutonic Order of Knights. In 1466 the Order was finally defeated, and Poland became an important barrier against Turkish invasions of Europe. Bohemia and Hungary were less fortunate, Bohemia falling gradually under German control, while Hungary was fully occupied during the fifteenth century in resisting the Turks on one side, and the Habsburg dukes of Austria on the other. The case of Russia was yet more unhappy. In the thirteenth century her rising power was crushed under the first Tartar invasion. Russia was completely subdued by Gengis Khan in 1241, and it seemed then probable that he would carry devastation through all Europe. This danger was happily averted, though Poland, Hungary, Servia, and Bulgaria were wasted by the Tartar hordes; but Russia endured their domination for two hundred years.

Her emancipation, which dates from the selection of Moscow for her capital about 1300, was very slow, and Tartar supremacy was not finally thrown off until 1477. Even

then Russia was so hemmed in by Turkey and Poland that it was long before she could play any part in general European politics.

Spain and Portugal.—The closing years of the Middle Ages saw the rise to first-rate importance of two countries which had hitherto stood apart from the general trend of European affairs. The long wars with the Moors had resulted finally in the confinement of those infidels to the kingdom of Granada, but the decline of their power had not brought peace to the Peninsula. Navarre, Castile, Aragon, and Portugal were constantly at war with each other, and each kingdom was torn by intestine divisions, the quarrels between the nobles and the great towns being specially inveterate. It was long before the kingly power was able, as in other countries, to take advantage of these divisions to make itself absolute. But in 1469 the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon with Isabella of Castile gave the necessary strength to the monarchy, and the union of the two kingdoms more than doubled their effective strength. The disorders of the clergy and nobility were sternly repressed, and both were gradually shorn of a large part of the wealth which had made them dangerous to the Crown.

Granada was finally conquered in 1492 and the Moors and Jews were compelled to choose baptism or exile. The Inquisition, established in 1478 for the detection of Jews who had professed Christianity but had afterwards relapsed, was used against the Moors with the same terrible severity. Conscientious bigotry, it cannot be doubted, was the motive for conduct which was even then recognised to be opposed to the dictates of worldly policy, but the result to the future of Spain was most calamitous. Wide districts in central and southern Spain, once rich in corn, the vine, and the olive, were turned into desolate

wastes, and tens of thousands of thrifty and industrious cultivators were driven from their homes to seek asylum beyond the sea. The immense riches poured in from its acquisitions in the New World imparted for a long time a factitious strength to the Spanish monarchy, and disguised the essential weakness of a power whose wealth was not the product of an industrial population. However, at the close of the fifteenth century not only the apparent but the real strength of Spain was very great, and for nearly a hundred years she was the chief power in the world. A strong government was firmly established; Portugal retained her independence, but the Spanish monarchy had been consolidated by the conquest of the kingdom of Navarre, and Spain was preparing to embark on the sea of European politics.

The Great Discoveries.—The reign of Ferdinand and Isabella was signalised by the discovery of America by a Genoese seaman, Christopher Columbus. Maritime adventure, till then timid and tentative, developed rapidly with the discovery of the magnetic needle, the knowledge of which apparently came from China. Henceforth long voyages were possible, and the Portuguese and Spaniards set the example of bold navigation and successful discovery. Encouraged by Prince Henry the Navigator, the Portuguese, who had held aloof as far as possible from the civil wars of Spain, had explored the north-west coast of Africa; Cape Verde, Madeira, and the Canaries had been discovered, and at length in 1486 the Cape of Good Hope was rounded. In 1497 Vasco de Gama accomplished a yet greater feat, the discovery of the route to India. The Portuguese were not slow to make important settlements there, and thus acquired a degree of wealth and power quite out of proportion to their importance in European history.

While the Portuguese were thus finding the way to India by the East, Columbus sought to discover a western route. He was rebuffed by his own city of Genoa, by Portugal, and by England, but at last succeeded in inducing Ferdinand and Isabella to entrust him with the command of an expedition to carry out his idea. In 1492 he set out with three ships, and with these he discovered the West Indies, but it was not till 1498 that he landed on the continent of America. The bold example was speedily followed by other adventurers, and the whole of the vast unknown regions thrown open to the enterprise, the greed, and the curiosity of Europe.

Modern history begins with the discovery of the New World. The states of Europe have in the main assumed the forms that they afterwards preserved. The destinies of the world are passing into new hands, and the future is with the races best adapted to take advantage of the changed conditions. The old trade routes are barred by the presence of the Turks at Constantinople, and the opening up of the new paths to India and America is turning all men's minds to the development of these hitherto unknown regions. The struggle for colonies, characteristic of the modern world, is about to begin.

CHAPTER V.

The Epoch of the Reformation.

Modern Europe.—It is necessary that the student of history should constantly keep in mind its essential unity. It is impossible to fix upon a given date and to say, "At that moment ancient history ends," or "In this year modern history has its beginning." But for the sake of convenience it is legitimate to draw a clearly marked line between two periods, if it be remembered that there must be an insensible gradation from one set of circumstances to another. Even a great cataclysm like the French Revolution did not make it practicable for France to start her history again with a clean sheet. Bearing this proviso in mind, it may be affirmed that from 1492 modern history takes the place of medieval, and that from this period onwards the student will always be dealing with a state of political life with which he is familiar. The life of the nations is no longer dominated by ideas foreign to present modes of thought, and the policy of their rulers is more and more swayed by the spirit which we recognise as modern. The old conception of the World-Church under Pope and Emperor has lost its power, and in its place there has begun to grow up the spirit of a nationality based on common interests.

This development was especially to be observed in France, Spain, and England, where in each case common dangers

had done much towards welding together the jarring elements into one compact state. In each country a strong royal power grew up, for the mass of the people supported the central power against the feudal nobles, who in their own interests desired a weak monarchy. The democratic movements of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries mark a distinct advance in the power of the people. Switzerland contends on equal terms with Austria and Burgundy, and all over Europe the importance of the towns is increasing. In France, England, and Germany the discontent of the peasantry is seen in their destructive insurrections, and in the unrest caused among them by unorthodox preachers such as Wycliffe and Huss, and in Italy the Fraticelli and Fra Dolcino. And tending in the same direction we may observe the growth of the feeling of personal and individual independence, due partly to the decay of the old system of groups which prevailed under the feudal system, partly to the revival of learning which culminated in the Renaissance, and finally to the Reformation.

The Italian Wars.—Germany and Italy were the principal exceptions to the administrative unity which had been attained in most of the countries of Europe. But in Germany the Emperors derived sufficient power from their hereditary dominion of Austria to prevent any interference from outside. Italy had no prince sufficiently powerful to secure her immunity from attack, and fell a prey to the first comer. Charles VIII. of France enjoys the distinction of having renewed the series of Italian wars carried on by foreign powers. A quarrel had long been going on between the Houses of Anjou and Aragon for the possession of the kingdom of Naples, and at the end of the fifteenth century the claims of the two families fell into the hands respectively of the kings of France and Aragon.

In 1494 Charles VIII. of France invaded Italy to enforce his claim, and a complicated series of wars began, in which France, Spain, the Emperor Maximilian, Venice, Milan, Florence, the Popes, and even England were involved. These powers were continually forming fresh combinations and alliances one against the other, the most important being the League of Cambray, directed against the power of Venice, in 1508. Venice suffered severely under this attack, and was only saved from destruction by the intervention of the Holy League, formed by Pope Julius II., which succeeded in driving the French out of Italy in 1512. This left Spain the principal power in Italy, for the crown of Naples had been added in 1503 by the great captain, Gonzalo de Cordova, to those of Castile, Aragon, and Sicily. Venice had been much and permanently weakened, and Florence had fallen under the control of the Medici.

The Dominions of Charles V.—The expulsion of the French from Italy did not put an end to the war, which was maintained for many years by the rivalry between Francis I. of France and the Emperor Charles V. Charles was the most powerful prince of his age. From his grandparents Ferdinand and Isabella he inherited Spain, Naples, and Sicily. Through his other grandfather the Emperor Maximilian he was ruler of the Netherlands, including Belgium, for Maximilian had married the daughter of Charles the Bold of Burgundy, and the great duke's possessions had gone to their son, Charles V.'s father. Moreover, in 1519, on Maximilian's death, Charles was elected Emperor, so that it seemed possible that there might be a re-establishment of the old universal Empire, the Habsburg dominions in Austria being thus added to his already vast possessions. His power was now so great as to be a menace to Europe, and especially to France; but

his dominions were scattered, and lacking in unity and effective strength.

Charles V. and Francis I.—Francis I. began his wars by attacking Milan, and gained a great victory at Marignano in 1515 over a mercenary army of Swiss. The Duchy of Milan was won and there was a brief respite of hostilities, but the rivalry that broke out over the election of the Emperor in 1519 caused the loss of the new conquest. Francis tried to obtain election for himself, and on his failure war soon broke out again. In 1525 the French suffered a disastrous defeat at Pavia, and Francis, who was made prisoner, was compelled in 1526 to sign the Treaty of Madrid, giving up all his claims in Italy. The treaty, however, was not kept, and war went on till 1529, when the French again abandoned Italy by the Treaty of Cambray. Francis attempted to create a diversion in his favour by inducing the Sultan Soliman to attack Charles' eastern frontier, and by aiding the Protestant rebellion in Germany. But he was able to effect nothing in Italy, while Charles' invasions of France proved equally fruitless; and when the two rivals disappeared from the scene Italy was entirely under Spanish control, and France had only been able to prevent the consolidation of Charles' dominions into one irresistible whole. The same policy was pursued by Henry II., who contrived even to win a few small provinces (Metz, Toul, and Verdun), which were retained when peace was finally made at Câteau-Cambrésis in 1559. But at that time Charles V. had abdicated in favour of his son Philip II. (1556), and the separation of the Empire from the Spanish monarchy made the position of France less dangerous.

The Renaissance.—The wars by which Italy was wasted during this period did not arrest the progress of learning

and the arts. While France and Spain, now aided and now opposed by a crowd of cruel and perfidious native potentates, were disputing for the mastery of the country, a long line of illustrious men were devoting their lives to the production of works which rivalled the masterpieces of antiquity. Never has the national genius shone brighter than during this time of disaster and humiliation. Classical literature and art supplied the needed models, and the movement was supported by most of the ruling families, especially the Medici at Florence, and by the Popes, one of the most famous of whom, Leo X., was of the Medici family. The national genius for form and colour, and for the plastic arts, reached at this period its highest development, and Michael Angelo, Raphael, Leonardo, and Titian were supreme where almost all were great. In everything done or attempted the fervour of an all-pervading enthusiasm may be seen, hardly to be recognised, at least in equal degree, at any other period of the world's history.

Nor was the movement confined to Italy. In Germany, in the Netherlands, and in France the new learning was cultivated with equal success and almost equal fervour by Erasmus, Reuchlin, Melancthon, Lipsius, Aleander, and many lesser men who were their disciples and successors. England was late to feel the full force of the movement, though More, Colet, and Linacre were worthy to share the friendship and the studies of Erasmus; and it is not till late in the sixteenth century that we mark the extraordinary outburst of genius of every kind which culminated in Bacon and Shakespeare, and, closing the Renaissance, the great name of Milton.

In the physical sciences the progress made was equally marked. The Copernican system of astronomy, developed and perfected by Kepler and Galileo, played an important

part in emancipating men's minds from the prejudices of ages, and introducing a new and juster conception of the universe. And, lastly, the art of printing, speedily introduced into all civilised countries, popularised and disseminated the knowledge thus eagerly cultivated, and was one of the most potent influences in the memorable movement next to be dealt with.

The Reformation.—One great result of the Renaissance was undoubtedly the Reformation. The Councils of Constance and Basle, as we have seen, had failed to cope with the abuses in the Church against which Wycliffe and Huss had protested. The heretics were suppressed, but the discontent remained and kept on growing, while the grounds for dissatisfaction continually increased, though the old veneration for the Church and the hierarchy long maintained its hold.

But a great change was brought about by the emancipation and spirit of enlightenment which were the essence of the Renaissance. When men's eyes were thus purged, it was impossible that they should not see how far the Church had departed from the purity and simplicity of its early days. The Popes were secular princes who sat in the seat of St. Peter and played an absolutely unscrupulous part in the politics of a most unscrupulous age. Their zeal for literature and art was the most laudable characteristic of the higher clergy. The monasteries and the preaching orders were mainly concerned with amassing wealth for themselves and for the Popes. An attempt at a reformation of morals and discipline had been made by Savonarola (1494). He had the boldness to denounce the abuses of the Church and to appeal for a General Council, and the enthusiasm he excited made him for a time all-powerful at Florence. But Pope Alexander VI. (Borgia) triumphed,

and the reformer perished at the stake. It was evident that reform must come from without.

Martin Luther —The attack upon abuses in the Church was begun by Erasmus and other men of learning, but it did not become dangerous till it was taken up by a man of the people. Martin Luther had been a monk, but abandoned his order as a protest against certain practices in the Church, especially in regard to Indulgences, or remission of penances. In 1517 he nailed on the church door at Wittenburg his ninety-five theses against the misuse of Indulgences, and with that act the Reformation may be said to begin. For from his first position Luther went on to attack the authority of the Pope, and to set forth the independent study of the Bible as the great authority for Christians. He also advocated the marriage of the clergy and the suppression of the monasteries and convents. His condemnation by Pope Leo X. did not affect him, for he found great support in Germany, where reform was specially needed. Many of the princes were only too willing to enrich themselves by confiscating the property of the Church, while the middle classes eagerly accepted Luther's doctrine of justification by faith.

In 1529 Charles V., at Speyer, induced the Diet, or assembly of the Empire, to pass a decree against all ecclesiastical change, whereupon the Lutheran princes protested, and in this way received the name of Protestants. In 1530 the Reformers drew up the famous Confession of Augsburg, which embodied the main features of the new religion, and banded themselves together to defend their interests.

War was inevitable after this, and it soon broke out, thus adding to the troubles of Charles V., who was occupied in fighting against France and the Turks at the same

time. It is therefore no matter for surprise that in spite of his great power he was at length obliged to give official recognition to Lutheranism. By the Treaty of Augsburg in 1555 the two religions were placed upon an equal footing, and it was agreed that the government of each state should determine what religion should be exercised within its borders. Thus, while there was as yet no toleration in the modern sense of the word, the Reformation had won a great victory in Germany, and had made good its hold, especially in the northern districts. Luther himself had died in 1546, but the movement which his courage had started could not die, and his work remains to the present day.

Calvin and Switzerland.—The Reformation accomplished by Luther did not spread far beyond the borders of Germany. Other countries which threw off the yoke of Rome adopted, with various modifications, a different form of religion, founded by John Calvin, a Frenchman. He first preached his doctrines in France, but they met with determined hostility from Francis I., who feared that the authority of the king would be thrown off as that of the Pope had been. Calvin was forced to flee from France, and he finally settled at Geneva, where he became all-powerful, and established a form of government based entirely on religion. Switzerland had already accepted the Reformation from the teaching of Zwingli, but his doctrine was quite supplanted by Calvinism.

Calvin published his system in a book called "*Institutio Christianae Religionis*," and it speedily found acceptance in various countries. In Scotland it was definitely adopted through the preaching of John Knox, and in Holland also it had many adherents, while the Protestants of France, called Huguenots, were also Calvinists. Like Luther,

Calvin rejected the doctrine of the Mass and the practice of clerical celibacy; he would admit of no bishops in his system, and insisted that the services and churches should be without ornament. Calvinism is built up on the doctrines of predestination and election; and repellant as is in many respects its doctrinal system, it has been the creed of many lofty and heroic characters, and though its influence is perceptibly waning, its votaries are still very numerous.

In England the Reformation was to a great extent a matter of policy rather than of religion. Henry's divorce from Catherine of Aragon exercised considerable influence on its progress, as it involved him in a quarrel with the Pope, who refused to dissolve the marriage. Henry VIII. thereupon repudiated Papal control over the Church in England, and proclaimed himself the head of the English Church, dissolving the monasteries, and putting down with a high hand all those who stood up for the old order. Under Edward VI. some changes in doctrine were made, but Mary restored Romanism during her short reign, and it was not till the accession of Elizabeth in 1558 that the success of the Reformation in England was assured. Even then the change was less radical than in any other country; few changes in doctrine were made, the repudiation of the Pope's authority being perhaps the most important feature of the alterations. Thus the extent and nature of the Reformation varied greatly in different countries. Speaking broadly, the Teutonic nations accepted the change, while the Romance nations rejected it. Italy and Spain hardly felt the movement, and the Roman Church in those countries reformed itself, while in France Roman Catholicism emerged triumphant from a terrible series of wars, which have yet to be dealt with.

The Counter-Reformation.—It was not to be expected that the Roman Church would submit to the spread of the Reformation without resistance. The steps taken by Charles V. in Germany to withstand its progress have been already referred to, but the Church itself also made efforts to retain its hold upon the peoples. The danger, the loss, the disgrace would seem to have infused a new spirit into the hierarchy. In the place of the worldly and dissolute Popes of the Renaissance there arose a succession of pontiffs of pure morals and animated by the most ardent zeal.

In Italy and Spain the Inquisition was set to work more diligently than ever to put down any tendency to heresy, and a further effort was made to check its progress by the establishment of the Index, a list of books containing what the Popes declared to be false doctrine, which the faithful sons of the Church were forbidden to read.

Moreover, great efforts were made to reform the abuses which had been the principal object of the attacks of the Reformers, and to restore the faith and the morals which had become so fearfully relaxed. Several new monastic orders were instituted: one especially by the fervour of its zeal did more than all the rest to restore the position of the Church in those countries in which it had lost ground, and to carry its teachings into realms hitherto unvisited by Christian missions. This was the celebrated Company of Jesus, founded in 1540 by Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish knight, and organised by him after the manner of an army, on the principle of implicit obedience to its superior. The rise of the order was very rapid, and it fought the battle of the Church in every country in Europe, in the pulpit, in the press, and above all in its own schools, in which the

Catholic youth were trained with a skill and success which were long unrivalled.

The last great factor in the Counter-Reformation was the Council of Trent, which, sitting from 1545 to 1563, carried out with a firm hand the reform of abuses, and also fixed the doctrines of the Church in a form which they long retained.

The Wars of Religion in France.—In studying the history of the Reformation and the wars that arose out of it, it is important to remember that religion was not the only point at issue. The idea of toleration was unknown in the sixteenth century: it did not occur to anybody that the creed of his neighbour was a matter that did not concern him, and the popular opinion was that heretics were continually plotting some villainy. Consequently each king thought it necessary to make his people adopt his own religion. This notion was the basis of the compromise embodied in the Treaty of Augsburg, and it was that system which the kings of France endeavoured to carry out. The Crown remained faithful to Rome, and Francis I. and Henry II. persecuted the Huguenots.

Henry was succeeded in turn by his three sons, who were all much under the influence of their mother, Catherine de' Medici. Between 1562 and 1595 there were eight wars carried on with varying success between the Catholics, led by the kings and the great family of Guise, and the Huguenots, who were supported by the king of Navarre. The Huguenots were able to extort a treaty by which they were allowed the exercise of their religion in La Rochelle and a few other specified towns, but peace was never firmly established.

The Massacre of St. Bartholomew in 1572 is the most striking incident in the tangled series of bloody wars and

precarious truces which make up the history of the period, large numbers of Huguenots being murdered in Paris and throughout France on St. Bartholomew's Day. In 1589 the last son of Henry II. was assassinated, and the heir to his throne was Henry of Navarre, the leader of the Huguenots, who became king as Henry IV. France seemed to be lost, for Philip of Spain supported the Catholics in their resistance to the king, and Henry could make no real progress in spite of his military successes. At length, in 1593, he accepted the inevitable and became a Roman Catholic, whereupon Paris submitted to him, and he became king of France in fact as well as in name. In 1598 he issued the Edict of Nantes, which gave freedom of worship to the Huguenots, with full civil rights and civil protection, and some political privileges of a liberal character, and as the Huguenots were thrifty and industrious they became a wealthy and influential body.

The Spaniards were driven from France, and after many years of strife the country began to make great progress under the able government of Henry IV. and his great minister, the Duke of Sully. The army and the finances were reorganised, agriculture and industry were fostered, and in every way Henry tried to realise his ideal that "each peasant should have a fowl in his pot on Sunday."

Thus France emerged triumphant from her troubles, only, however, to be plunged into misery again when Henry was murdered in 1610. Anarchy reigned once more for a few years during the minority of Louis XIII., until in 1624 Cardinal Richelieu became chief minister, and France was again governed by a born ruler of men. Under him the supremacy of the Crown was re-asserted and made even more absolute than before, and France began to resume

that prominent part in European politics which she had lost during her internal troubles.

The Supremacy of Spain.—Spain during the sixteenth century undoubtedly held the chief place in the European system. The power of Charles V., though its expansion was checked by his wars in Germany, with France, and with the Turks, was yet greater than that of any other monarch. But in 1556 he abdicated in favour of his son, Philip II. of Spain, and his dominions were divided. Philip took Spain, Italy, the Netherlands, and all the colonies, but the imperial crown and the Austrian lands went to Ferdinand, brother of Charles V. Notwithstanding this division Philip was very powerful, especially as he had married in 1554 Mary, the Roman Catholic Queen of England. Nevertheless his reign marks the beginning of the decay of the Spanish power, though in appearance he left the monarchy almost as strong as he found it. The death of Mary and the accession of Elizabeth delivered England from his control, and his efforts to regain it by establishing Mary, Queen of Scots, on the English throne proved unavailing. His interference in the wars of religion in France was at first successful, but was baffled when, in 1593, Henry IV. by his conversion to Roman Catholicism rallied all patriotic Frenchmen to him.

But Philip's greatest failure was in the Netherlands, where he tried vainly to suppress the growth of the Reformed religion. The wealthy citizens of the Low Countries had been faithful servants of Charles V., but Philip's introduction of the Spanish form of the Inquisition, and the cruelties of his general, the Duke of Alva, brought on a revolt in 1572, led by William the Silent, Prince of Orange. At first the southern provinces, the modern Belgium, were the keenest in rebellion, but as the

population was mainly Catholic they gradually returned to the Spanish allegiance. The seven northern provinces, however, maintained a heroic resistance, and they received assistance from time to time from France and England. In 1579 they formed the Union of Utrecht, and made William of Orange their hereditary Stadtholder, or Prince. He was murdered in 1584, but his son Maurice continued the war. Spain sent army after army under her greatest generals, Alva, Don John of Austria, and Alexander Farnese, Duke of Parma, but all in vain.

The little foreign help they got enabled the Dutch to carry on the struggle until 1609, when a truce was concluded which in effect marked the triumph of the United Provinces, for in 1648, at the end of the Thirty Years' War, their independence was recognised. Philip died in 1598, before Spain had experienced the full ignominy of defeat. No actual loss of territory had occurred during his reign, and in appearance at least Spain still towered over all her rivals, in spite of the shocks dealt her by France and Holland on land and by England on the sea.

England in the Sixteenth Century.—During the earlier part of the sixteenth century England took but small part in European politics. Henry VIII. did indeed pose as arbiter between Charles V. and Francis I., but his real influence was not very great, and his active interference in continental affairs was limited to three unimportant invasions of France. In the same year (1513), however, the English gained a notable victory at Flodden over the Scots, relations with whom assume great importance during this period. The Scots, as usual, were in alliance with France and took every opportunity of harassing England, but until the latter half of the century each country was mainly engrossed in the settle-

ment of its religious troubles. In England the Reformation made less alteration than elsewhere. But to effect even these changes involved strife and persecution, especially during the brief reign of Mary, and at her death the national strength was greatly reduced. Her last moments were embittered by the loss in 1558 of Calais, the one English possession on the Continent, and at the accession of Elizabeth it seemed that England was quite cut off from European politics.

But its connection with Scotland and with Protestantism involved England in the general course of events, and the reign of Elizabeth proved to be one of the critical periods of our history. Mary, who returned to Scotland as Queen in 1561, was a Roman Catholic, reigning in a country which had adopted in the Presbyterianism of Knox the most extreme form of Protestantism. Mary's position was thus one of the greatest difficulty, and it was made untenable by the fanaticism of the preachers and the turbulence and ferocity of the nobility. She was lacking also in the craft and self-control which might have saved her. She connived at the assassination of her husband, Darnley, and was compelled by the revolt of her people to fly to England (1568). She was kept there as a State prisoner, but even so her presence was dangerous to Elizabeth, as there were still many Roman Catholics in England who would gladly have set Mary on the throne.

There were several conspiracies with that object, till at length, in 1587, Mary was executed on a charge of complicity in an assassination plot. Philip of Spain, who was the chief supporter of the Roman Church, made her death an excuse for invading England, and in 1588 he sent the Armada against Elizabeth. It was completely defeated by the English fleet led by Lord Howard of Effingham and

Sir Francis Drake. Some English expeditions against Spanish ports met with no great success, but the strength of Spain was drained away by the piratical warfare kept up by Drake and other English sailors on the Spanish commerce and the treasure fleets from America. While Spain was thus declining, England came to be recognised in Europe as the leader of the Reformed religion; her assistance was invoked by the struggling Protestants of France and Holland, and at the close of Elizabeth's reign her position in Europe stood higher than at any previous time.

Under James I. and Charles I. English influence rapidly declined, internal troubles preventing them from interfering with any effect in general European affairs. But the accession of James was of immense importance to England, as it united with her under one king her old rival, Scotland, and the Scots could thus no longer aid the enemies of England by an attack on her northern frontier.

Eastern and Northern Europe.—There is a tendency in dealing with medieval history to limit the view to Western Europe, and to pass over the Eastern races which are groping their way, in spite of numerous hindrances, towards enlightenment and Western civilisation. But gradually they force themselves into recognition, and during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries the course of events in the east and north begins to be of immediate interest to Germany, France, Spain, and England. The alliance of Francis I. with the Sultan of Turkey has been mentioned, and it is clear proof that a new situation had been created. The advance of the Turks had not stopped with the capture of Constantinople, but went on by land and sea. Venice was the power on which fell the task of resisting them in the Mediterranean, and a constant

struggle was carried on for the possession of the ports and islands. Under Soliman II., the Magnificent (1520-1566), the Turkish Empire reached its greatest extent; it included Greece, a large part of Hungary, won by the battle of Mohacz in 1526, Bosnia, Servia, Moldavia, and Wallachia.

Soliman even besieged Vienna in 1529, and in the Mediterranean he conquered Rhodes and much of the northern coast of Africa. But he failed to take Malta, and after his death the power of the Turks declined rapidly. He was followed by a succession of weak Sultans, and the famous corps of Janissaries declined as a fighting force. At sea also the Turks had touched the zenith of their power, for in 1571 they suffered a crushing defeat at Lepanto from the combined fleets of Spain and Venice under Don John of Austria. By strenuous exertions they continued the war, and even conquered Cyprus in 1573, but they made no further great advance, and Venice was able to maintain her position in the Mediterranean, which at one time had seemed to be lost. From this period the power of the Turks ceased to menace the peace of Europe, and they began to tread the downward course on which, in spite of occasional outbursts of activity, they have continued to the present day.

The relations of Russia, Poland, Sweden, and Denmark during this period are of a very tangled nature. In 1523-4 Sweden broke away from the Union of Calmar, which had united her with Norway and Denmark since 1397, and chose the house of Vasa for its kings. Under them the Reformation was compulsorily adopted, and Sweden began rapidly to develop a degree of wealth and power which enabled her to interfere with decisive effect in the Thirty Years' War. Denmark was naturally weakened by the loss of Sweden; but the Poles, under the house of Jagellon, were

at this time very powerful, as the territories of the old Teutonic Order had fallen into their hands, and they were also masters of large districts of modern Russia and Prussia. After the ruin of the Hungarian kingdom at Mohacz in 1526, Poland was, next to Spain, the most considerable Catholic power in Europe, and the principal barrier against Turkish aggression. But the power of the monarchy began to decline when the Jagellon family died out in 1572, the crown becoming purely elective, and all power falling into the hands of a most turbulent and factious nobility.

At this time, too, the power of Russia began to make itself felt under Ivan IV., the Terrible, who reigned from 1533 to 1584, and was the first to call himself Tsar. He completely subdued the Tartars of Kasan, and extended the Russian boundary to the Caspian Sea by the conquest of Astrakhan; but he was unable to win a footing on the Baltic or the Black Sea, so that Russia was still shut off from communication with Western Europe except through Archangel. In 1598 the old royal line of Rurik died out, and a period of anarchy followed. The Poles endeavoured to take advantage of this to extend their control over Russia, but in this they met with opposition from Sweden. At last, in 1613, the patriotic party chose as Tsar Michael Romanoff, the founder of the present dynasty, and Russia was able to devote herself to the recovery of her old position.

The Thirty Years' War.—The wars of the later sixteenth century had been mainly caused by differences of religion, and politics had played only a secondary part. But a change in this respect was taking place. The fervour both of the Reformation and of the Counter-Reformation was perceptibly cooling, and the policy of kings and even of

Popes was falling under the sway of more worldly considerations. The bond of a common interest was coming to be regarded as more important than community of belief, and the effect of the change was naturally far-reaching. In 1618 there began in Germany a great struggle which lasted for thirty years (1618-1648), and is therefore called the Thirty Years' War. In its origin it was the outcome of religious differences, but gradually it brought within its compass most of the nations of Europe, the religious question was entirely lost sight of, and it eventually became a struggle for ascendancy on the one side, and on the other for that equilibrium of national forces which has since been called the balance of power.

The course of the war reduced Germany to a condition of absolute devastation, and extended from the Danube to the Scheldt, from the Po to the Baltic Sea. The war broke out in Bohemia as a result of the Emperor Ferdinand's efforts to restore the Roman Church. The Bohemians deposed Ferdinand and chose the Elector Palatine as their king, but he was speedily defeated and driven from his territory. Tilly and Wallenstein, the Emperor's generals, seemed likely to overrun all Germany; and the king of Denmark, who tried to help the Protestants, was defeated, driven from Germany, and attacked in his own possessions. But in 1630 the position was reversed. Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, came to the rescue of the Reformed Churches, and in two years he re-established their cause. He was killed, however, at the battle of Lutzen in 1632, and Wallenstein was murdered shortly afterwards, but the war dragged on for a long time without decisive military success on either side.

France, a Catholic country, allied herself with Sweden in 1635, and all pretence of religious motive thus disappeared.

In fact from this date Cardinal Richelieu and his successor, Cardinal Mazarin, only continued the war for the increase of French power. In this they were ably served by their famous generals, Condé and Turenne, who gained great victories over the Spaniards and the imperial forces at Rocroy (1643), Lens, and Nordlingen. The exhaustion of the combatants at length brought peace in 1648, and the struggle was ended by the Treaty of Westphalia, which marks one of the great stages of European history. In Germany Calvinism obtained equal treatment with Lutheranism, and the arrangement of 1555, that each prince should determine the religion of his own dominions, was confirmed. But Germany was left hopelessly disunited, made up of a number of small principalities, too weak to stand alone, and thus compelled to preserve their independence of the Emperor by the aid of foreign powers, such as France or Sweden. The Empire became little more than a name, but in the north the Electorate of Brandenburg was beginning to advance under the able rule of the Hohenzollern family.

The United Provinces won the recognition of their independence, and Sweden obtained in payment for her services parts of Pomerania and the northern coast of Germany. France, however, was the greatest gainer by the treaty. Metz, Toul, and Verdun were confirmed in her possession, and the acquisition of Alsace carried her borders to the Rhine. Moreover she continued the war with Spain until 1659, when by the Treaty of the Pyrenees she obtained Roussillon and some towns in Belgium. Richelieu and Mazarin had thus supplanted the House of Austria, and established the supremacy in Europe of the House of Bourbon. No further attempt to dominate Europe was to be feared from the Habsburgs, for the Emperor could not command the

adherence of Germany, and Spain was obviously falling into decay. Wealth still poured in from her possessions in America; but, her power at sea once lost, this source became precarious, and England, Holland, and France had all begun to direct their energies to colonising the Western World. Portugal had been annexed to Spain for sixty years (1580-1640), but it was lost almost without a struggle, and the Treaties of Westphalia and the Pyrenees reveal the weakness of the mighty empire which Charles V. only a century earlier had bequeathed to his successors.

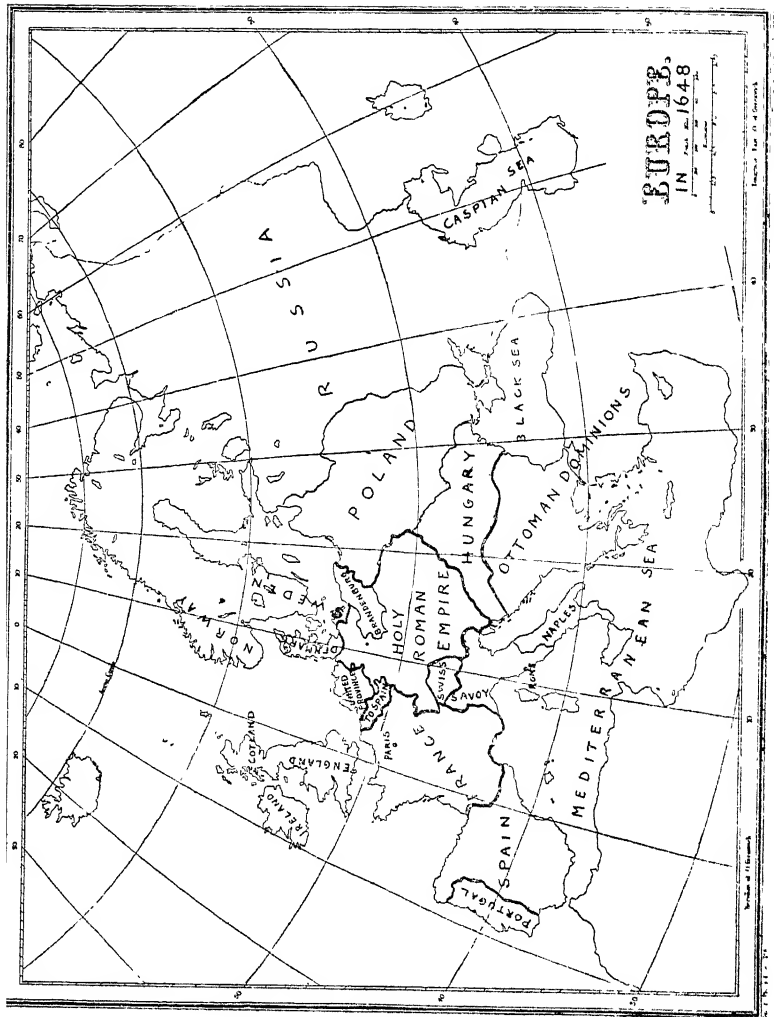
CHAPTER VI.

Europe before the Revolution.

The French Monarchy and the Fronde.—The rise of France to the leading position in Europe during the seventeenth century was made possible by the consolidation of its government into an absolute monarchy by the two great Cardinals, Richelieu and Mazarin.

Richelieu on his accession to office in 1624 found the royal power threatened by two great dangers, the independence of the Huguenots and the power of the nobility, and he realised that unity must be attained at home before France could occupy the position in which he aspired to place her. Accordingly the Huguenots were attacked and, in spite of some help from England, their stronghold, La Rochelle, fell in 1628. By the Peace of Alais they retained their liberty of worship, but they lost the fortified towns they held as guarantees of their religious freedom, and also the special privileges which made them dangerous to the state. Over the nobles, who were aided by Louis XIII.'s brother, the Duke of Orleans, Richelieu also triumphed by a combination of craft with iron resolution, and in 1635 he was able to interpose in the 'Thirty Years' War free from the fear of mutiny at home.

But on his death the discontents who had not dared to show themselves under his stern rule broke out with violence, and during the minority of Louis XIV. Mazarin had great difficulty in withstanding the disintegrating forces.



The *Parlement*, or Council of Paris, tried to play the part of the English Parliament, and the nobles sought to revive their old privileges, the Queen Regent was little respected, and Mazarin was hated and despised as a foreigner. The civil wars that resulted were called the Fronde, and they went on intermittently and with varying fortunes from 1648 to 1653. The factious nobles called in the help of Spain, but Mazarin by clever diplomacy, now yielding, now standing firm, was in the end completely successful. At his death, in 1661, he left Louis XIV. at the head of a powerful and united kingdom, fitted in every way to carry out the ambitious schemes he was preparing.

England. The Rebellion and the Commonwealth.—The monarchy in England had been less fortunate. The Tudor sovereigns had enjoyed almost despotic power, because the nobility and the Church had been weakened by the Wars of the Roses, while the great body of the people desired a strong government which should preserve the public tranquillity and enable them to make solid progress in industry and commerce. During the reign of Elizabeth the wealth and power of the middle classes had greatly increased, while the growth of Puritanism and the victories over the Spaniards had contributed to call forth a spirit which could not safely be met by the methods of despotism. England was the head of the Protestant interest in Europe, and the accession of James I., which united England and Scotland under one crown, should have strengthened her position (1603).

But James' foreign policy was feeble in the extreme, and at home he tried to be more despotic than the Tudors. The interference of England in the Thirty Years' War, and in the struggle of the Huguenots against Richelieu, was mismanaged and ineffective, and the projected marriage

of Charles I. with a Spanish princess was very unpopular. But it was the domestic policy of the Stuarts which ruined the monarchy.

Charles I. quarrelled with his Parliaments on the question of taxation, and from 1629 to 1640 he ruled without a Parliament, raising money by such means as benevolences, monopolies, and ship-money. Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, and Archbishop Laud were his chief advisers during this period, and Laud's bigotry did much to increase the discontent of the Nonconformist and Puritan party, which was very numerous and powerful. At length the need of money to resist a Scotch invasion, brought about by a most impolitic attempt to introduce the Anglican liturgy into Scotland, where it was regarded with extreme aversion, compelled Charles to summon the Parliament which was to be his ruin (1640).

The Long Parliament, which sat till 1653, caused Strafford to be executed, and swept away a host of abuses, and the quarrel with the King becoming constantly more embittered, Charles in 1642 raised his standard at Nottingham, and civil war commenced. Most of the nobles supported him, while the merchants and shopkeepers of the towns stood for the Parliament. The war was carried on for some time with varying fortunes, and success was fairly evenly balanced until the formation of the *New Model Army* under Fairfax and Cromwell. These Puritan soldiers, aided by the Scotch Covenanters, carried all before them; and at length, in 1646, Charles himself fell into their hands. A perplexed period of intrigue and mutual recrimination followed between Scotch and English, Royalist and Roundhead, Presbyterian and Independent, but the great debate was ended by the execution of Charles in 1649, and the establishment of the Commonwealth.

England again became a force in European affairs. Cromwell conquered Scotland and Ireland between 1650 and 1652, and then turned his attention to the Continent. The famous Navigation Act, 1651, which forbade the importation of goods except in English ships, led to war with the Dutch, in which the English under Blake and Monk were on the whole successful against Van Tromp and De Ruyter. The Ironsides helped France to finish off her long war with Spain, from whom also England won Jamaica. Thus Cromwell raised the prestige of England higher than ever abroad; but at home his authority rested entirely on the support of the army, the nation being awed into submission to a power too strong to be resisted. He had become Lord Protector in 1653, but at his death in 1658 his son Richard, who succeeded him, was quite incapable of maintaining his position. The whole nation longed for peace and freedom. None of Cromwell's lieutenants was possessed of commanding ability, and when Monk declared himself in favour of the Restoration of the old monarchy, the dread of anarchy or of a renewed military despotism united all parties in bringing back Charles II. in 1660.

The Age of Louis XIV.—The period from 1661 to 1715 is generally known as the Age of Louis XIV., because during that time his personality dominates the history of Europe, and the other nations are occupied in preventing his power from attaining the overwhelming proportions which had marked the Empire of Charles V.

After Mazarin's death Louis determined to reign without a chief minister. The government depended entirely upon his will: "I am the State," he once said, and on that principle he always acted. His foreign policy was at first very successful. Richelieu and Mazarin had trained a fine

army, which was perfected by Louvois; the finances were reformed and industry and commerce encouraged under Colbert, and France was by far the most highly organised state in Europe. Power so formidable, concentrated under a single head, and directed by a grasping and unscrupulous ambition, was at first irresistible, and France became supreme. But the common danger and the exactions and insolence of Louis leagued the whole Continent against him, and the strain on the resources of France became too great. The taxation was at last absolutely crushing, and the sufferings of the lower classes were most severe, for Louis would make no attempt to compensate by economy at home for the expense of his foreign wars. The prosperity of France received a further blow in the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes in 1685, which drove thousands of thrifty and industrious Huguenot workers to seek a home in foreign lands.

The brilliance of the Court, and of a literature which could boast the great names of Pascal, Molière, Racine, Boileau, Bossuet, and a host of others, might conceal in some degree the extreme misery of the peasantry, but there can be no doubt that the discontents which at length brought about the overthrow of the monarchy originated in the reign of Louis XIV.

The Earlier Wars of Louis XIV — When Philip IV. of Spain died in 1665, Louis claimed a part of his possessions as the inheritance of his Spanish wife, and by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1668 he was allowed to retain some towns in Flanders which he had captured. Holland thereupon began to be alarmed for her own safety. She had been wonderfully prosperous since her deliverance from Spain, principally through her maritime trade, which exceeded that of England. In 1672 Louis invaded Holland, and it seemed that the United Provinces would soon be

added to his dominions, for the Dutch stood alone, Charles II. of England and some of the German princes being allied with France against them. But they took courage, opened their dykes to flood the country, overthrew the republican government under John de Witt, and elected William of Orange, descendant of William the Silent, to be their Stadtholder. Fortune soon began to turn, for the English Parliament forced Charles II. to make peace, and a coalition which included Spain and the Empire was formed against Louis. However, at the Treaty of Nimeguen in 1678 he was able to retain Franche-Comté and several Flemish towns which he had conquered.

The peace was little more than a truce, for Louis continued the same course of insolence and aggression. He seized Strasburg, quarrelled with Genoa and the Pope, and finally laid claim to the Palatinate. War broke out in 1689, and William of Orange, now king of England, formed the Grand Alliance of England, Holland, Spain, Sweden, and the Empire, which carried on the struggle until 1697, when it was ended by the Treaty of Ryswick. Little change was made by this treaty, all the combatants waiting for the question of the succession in Spain to arise. But even this qualified success of the allies showed that Louis had lost some of his power, and that the English Revolution had enabled his great enemy, William of Orange, to oppose an effectual barrier to his schemes of ambition.

The Revolution in England, 1688, and its Results.—The Restoration of Charles II. had given the Stuarts a second opportunity of establishing their dynasty in England, but they made no better use of it than of the first. A trifler and debauchee, Charles soon forfeited his people's confidence. He sold Dunkirk, Cromwell's great acquisition

on the Continent, to the French king, and even stooped to receive a pension from him. The Dutch war was mismanaged, and in 1667 the enemy's fleet sailed up the Medway. Most serious of all was the attitude of the Stuarts towards Roman Catholicism. Charles, who was indolent and careless, saw that the nation would not endure its re-introduction; but his brother James II., a Roman Catholic, was determined to restore the old faith. The Test Act of 1673 had excluded Romanists from public employment; but James defied the law, and his arbitrary conduct at length completely alienated even the Tory and High Church party, which had been the staunchest supporters of the dynasty. A conspiracy comprehending practically the whole nation was formed, and in 1688 William of Orange, son-in-law of James, was invited over and proclaimed king. The Declaration of Rights, 1689, confirmed by Act of Parliament, defined the principles of the English Constitution, which have been recognised by all William's successors. It provides that no law can be made, or tax levied, without consent of Parliament, which thus became the keystone of the Constitution.

Ireland being a Romanist country, James was able for a time to maintain himself there; but he was defeated at the Boyne in 1690, and fled to France, and before long Ireland was more completely subjugated than ever. Roman Catholicism being even more detested in Scotland than in England, the change of rulers was gladly accepted there. In 1707 the Act of Union united England and Scotland under one Parliament, and although for a time there was much national jealousy and ill-will, and though in 1715, and again in 1745, the Stuarts were able to gain sufficient support in Scotland to raise rebellions and even to invade England, the Hanoverian dynasty, whose right to the

throne had been established by the Act of Settlement in 1701, was unshaken. The importance of England in general European politics was much increased by the accession of William it was her influence thrown into the scale which ensured the success of the great coalition by which Louis XIV. was finally defeated, and France brought to the verge of ruin.

The War of the Spanish Succession.—Since the death of Philip II. in 1598 Spain had continued her downward course. She had continually been at war with France, and had always emerged shorn of some of her possessions. There yet, however, remained an immense empire, which, in the hands of a strong ruler, might have retained for Spain a great position among the nations. But Charles II., the last descendant of the Emperor Charles V., was weak in body and mind, and, as he had no son, the rulers of Europe gathered round his deathbed to divide the Spanish Empire. The most suitable of three claimants died, and there were left the Archduke Charles of Austria and the Dauphin of France. William III. and Louis XIV. agreed that the Spanish dominions should be divided between the two; but Charles II. hated the idea, and by his will left the whole to Philip, grandson of Louis. Thereupon Louis abandoned his agreement and supported the claim of his grandson, which was opposed by all the other powers, as they could not safely allow the French and Spanish monarchies to be so closely allied.

William died before the struggle really began, but England took the principal part in the Grand Alliance. The war lasted from 1701 till 1713, and Louis had to maintain armies in Spain, Italy, Germany, and Holland. The inevitable result was the defeat and complete exhaustion of France. Marlborough, helped by Prince Eugene of Savoy,

won great victories at Blenheim (1704), Ramillies (1706), Oudenarde (1708), and Malplaquet (1709) which greatly increased the prestige of England, while the conquest of Gibraltar gave her an all-important footing in the Mediterranean. But England and Europe grew tired of the war, and the accession of the Archduke Charles to the Empire in 1711 made the other powers less eager to win Spain for him. Accordingly, in 1713 England, Holland, Prussia, and Savoy granted Louis the peace he had asked for in the Treaty of Utrecht, which was followed in 1714 by the Treaty of Rastadt between France and the Empire.

England was the greatest gainer by the settlement. In Europe she kept only Minorca and Gibraltar, the key of the Mediterranean, but the Treaty of Utrecht marks the definite establishment of England as a leading power in the New World. Newfoundland and Nova Scotia were ceded to her, and, most important of all, Spain granted her the *Asiento*, or right to trade with certain of her colonies in America. The English merchants abused the privilege, which proved a source of immense wealth for this country.

Philip V., Louis' grandson, was recognised as king of Spain, but he was obliged to agree that the crowns of Spain and France should never be united. The Spanish possessions in the Low Countries and Italy were given to the Emperor; the dukes of Savoy acquired Sicily; and Prussia also received compensation in Germany for the share she had taken in the war.

France of course gained nothing, and though she was not compelled to cede any of her earlier conquests, the close of the long struggle left her much exhausted, the finances in wild disorder, and the population greatly reduced in numbers. She was still, however, the leading power on the Continent, as England undoubtedly was at sea.

The Rise of Prussia.—Reference has been made in discussing the Treaty of Utrecht to the acquisitions made under it by Prussia, and it is desirable to sketch the rise of a power which from this time looms large in European history. The Mark of Brandenburg had been formed as a bulwark against the Slavs, and it soon became an important principality and one of the Electorates of the Empire. In the fifteenth century it was granted to the Hohenzollern family, and under them made steady progress; but it was not till the Thirty Years' War that it became really powerful under Frederick William (1640-1688), called the Great Elector. His main object was to unify his scattered provinces, and by judicious diplomacy he succeeded in achieving most of his aims. He freed Prussia for ever from Polish suzerainty, and in 1675 he defeated the Swedes at Fehrbellin and conquered part of Pomerania, thus dealing a severe blow at Swedish power in Germany. Moreover, he encouraged trade and industry, settling many of the exiled Huguenots in his provinces, and developing his resources in every way. So great indeed was the progress made, that his successor was able to gain from the Emperor, in 1701, the title of King of Prussia, and to obtain recognition as such at the Treaty of Utrecht.

Frederick William I. (1713-1740) carried still further the work of preparing Prussia for the greatness it was to achieve in the reign of his gifted son. He established the most centralised form of government in Europe, under which nothing was too minute for the bureaucracy to settle, and by practising a rigid economy in every branch of the public service he was able to raise and discipline a magnificent army. In his foreign policy he was not very successful, and he contrived to quarrel with Austria,

which was beginning to feel jealous of the rising power of Prussia.

Austria and the Pragmatic Sanction.—The power of the Emperors in Germany had finally passed away with the Peace of Westphalia; but that of Austria, derived from its hereditary possessions, remained intact and even received important additions during this period. Besides their wars with France the Emperors were engaged in a long contest with the Turks, who were aided by the oppressed Protestants of Hungary. In 1683 Vienna was besieged by the Turks, who experienced a brief revival of energy under the Viziers of the Kuprili family; but they were driven off by the Poles under John Sobieski, and at the Peace of Carlowitz in 1699 they finally relinquished Hungary. Further wars followed, in which Prince Eugene greatly distinguished himself, and in 1718 the Treaty of Passarowitz gave Austria Belgrade and much of modern Serbia, and concluded for many years the long series of wars waged by Austria and Venice against the Turks.

These acquisitions, added to the new provinces in Italy and the Low Countries, greatly increased the power of Austria, but at the same time they made her more open to attack. Moreover, trouble was brewing on the question of the succession to these dominions. The Emperor Charles VI. had no son, and his whole policy was directed to inducing the other powers to accept the Pragmatic Sanction, a settlement by which all his hereditary dominions would pass to his daughter, Maria Theresa. His preoccupation with this policy weakened his action in some small wars with Spain and France, in which he lost Milan, Naples, and Lorraine; but at his death, in 1740, the Pragmatic Sanction had been guaranteed by all the chief powers, and Maria Theresa succeeded to the hereditary dominions.

The Wars of Austria and Prussia.—The guarantee, however, proved wholly illusory. Frederick II. (the Great) of Prussia immediately laid claim to Silesia and invaded it, while Bavaria, supported by France and Savoy, attacked the Austrian territory. Defeated by Frederick at Mollwitz, the Austrians bought him off by the cession of Silesia in 1742, and gave their whole strength to the conflict with France. Frederick was obliged to resume the war later, and at the definitive Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748 he finally obtained Silesia; but Austria, through the successful intervention of England, was not called on to cede any territory to France, conquests being restored by each side. France had gained nothing by her interference, and at sea England had secured a position which was almost unassailable.

The struggle between France and England for colonial power hastened the inevitable resumption of war between Austria and Prussia, England wishing to involve France in troubles in Europe, while Frederick and Maria Theresa regarded each other with suspicion. In 1756 the Seven Years' War broke out. Frederick II., supported by an English army and subsidies, maintained an arduous struggle against Austria, France, Russia, and Sweden. He was frequently in great straits, and Prussia was brought to extreme misery by the ravages of her invaders, but Frederick won victory after victory. The French were defeated at Rosbach in 1757, the Austrians at Leuthen, and the Russians at Zorndorf; and though Frederick met with a great reverse at Kunersdorf in 1759, he contrived to hold his ground until he was saved by the death of Elizabeth of Russia and the accession of Peter III. Under the new Tsar, a great admirer of Frederick, Russia made peace, and in 1763 the war was ended by the

Treaty of Hubertsburg. Frederick retained Silesia and was at liberty to devote his energies to restoring the commercial and industrial prosperity of his kingdom, which had suffered terribly. The result of the Seven Years' War was to add another to the list of great powers in Europe.

England in the Eighteenth Century.—After the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713, England had desired to stand aloof from continental politics for a time. It was generally realised that her future lay upon the sea, and in the development of her colonial and mercantile power. Holland was no longer a rival, but rather a dependant, and Spain and France were the only countries which could seriously impede British progress. But at first France and England were united in opposition to Spain, which revived in power under Cardinal Alberoni and endeavoured to regain some of its Italian possessions (1718). The Quadruple Alliance of France, England, Austria, and Holland prevented this, and peace was restored. From the war of the Polish Succession (1733-1735) England did keep free, for Sir Robert Walpole was determined to give her a period of rest in which the Hanoverian dynasty might firmly establish itself upon the throne. However, the people became tired of inactivity, and in 1739 insisted on beginning a war with Spain, nominally on account of the ill-treatment of English sailors in South American waters. This war dragged on until the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748; but although France was involved in it after 1740, there was no tangible result, for each side surrendered its conquests at the peace. In the colonies, however, treaties made in Europe had little effect, and hostilities went on in India and America from 1739 to 1763, when the Treaty of Paris finally ended the struggle by recognising the

conquests of England. William Pitt, Earl of Chatham, had contrived to keep the best energies of France occupied in Europe by Frederick II., while the English army and navy were employed in Canada and India.

The great French power founded in Southern India by Dupleix was overthrown by Clive, who afterwards conquered Bengal by his victory at Plassey in 1757. The empire thus founded was organised and extended by Warren Hastings (1774-1785); and though these conquests were ostensibly made in the name of the East India Company, there could be no doubt of their importance to England. In America also the French lost their most valuable possession, for in 1759 Wolfe captured Quebec, and Canada was added to the English colonies. In 1763 Florida and part of Louisiana were also ceded by Spain, and the British triumph appeared to be complete. But before the end of the century England was to suffer a signal disaster, and France was to be fully avenged for her losses.

The American War of Independence.—The thirteen colonies founded by England along the coast of America had been peopled for the most part by the Puritans and others who had left home on account of the political and religious troubles under the Stuarts. They had emigrated for the sake of greater freedom, and it was not likely that they would submit to any infringement of their rights. They took a considerable part in the wars with France resulting in the conquest of Canada; and as they naturally reaped great advantages from their greater security and from the increase of trade, many English statesmen thought that they should bear a part of the expenses of the wars. The Americans asserted the old English principle that there should be no taxation without representation;

while the home government, influenced by George III. and supported by the majority of the nation, obstinately maintained its position. The dispute became more and more embittered until in 1775 war broke out, and in 1776 the Colonies issued their Declaration of Independence.

The English, who had the support of a large number of American loyalists, carried on the war for some time with a fair amount of success, but the revolted colonists were joined by France in 1778, and in the following year by Spain. The naval war became general, and England was overmatched. Gibraltar was besieged for three years; the West Indies were in jeopardy; in India Hyder Ali, supported by the French, threatened to overthrow the English supremacy. For a time in 1781 England lost the command of the sea, and this decided the loss of the Colonies, since no succour could be brought to the land forces. Cornwallis surrendered to Washington at Yorktown, and the independence of America was assured. England, however, retrieved her position at sea by Rodney's victory in the West Indies; and at the Treaty of Versailles, which ended the war in 1783, France and Spain secured only a few small islands. And if England lost her greatest possession, she had learned from bitter experience the lesson that colonies must not be treated simply as sources of revenue and commerce, but must be bound to the mother-country by ties of affection and mutual interest.

Russia under Peter the Great.—The election of the Romanoff family to the throne in 1613 marks the beginning of a new era in Russian history. During the next half-century the Tsars were largely occupied with wars against Sweden and Poland, as the result of which their boundaries were continually widening, though as yet no outlet had been won to the Baltic or the Black Sea. At

last in 1689, after some internal troubles, Peter the Great became Tsar, and with his accession the greatness of Russia commences. To prepare himself for his mission he spent several years in Western Europe, working with his own hands in an English ship-yard, and sparing no pains to equip himself for the task of civilising his half-barbarous subjects. His two great objects were to model his country on the lines of the Western nations, and to acquire a port and navy. In 1696 he conquered Azov on the Black Sea from the Turks, but lost it again in 1711 by the Treaty of the Pruth, and in the north he came into conflict with Charles XII. of Sweden.

The position of Sweden and her claims were at that time out of all proportion to her real power and population, and in 1699 Russia, Poland, and Denmark determined to attack her. Charles XII. possessed extraordinary military talents, and he soon crushed Denmark. Peter also was defeated at Narva in 1700; but Charles, instead of following up his success, turned aside to conquer Poland, which had declined from its former greatness. Peter therefore had time to recover, and in 1709 the power of Sweden was destroyed by the battle of Pultawa. Peter achieved his ambition, for by the acquisition of Livonia and Esthonia at the Peace of Nystadt in 1721 he secured himself a permanent footing on the Baltic, thus somewhat balancing the loss of Azov to the Turks by the Pruth Treaty. The internal changes carried out by Peter the Great were numerous and important. The power of the "boyars," or nobles, was broken, and the influence of the Church was enlisted on the side of the Tsar, who by the abolition of the office of Patriarch, in 1721, became in reality the supreme head of the Church. St. Petersburg was built under his directions, and industry and commerce were

encouraged by every means. It might perhaps have been wiser to carry out the changes more gradually, but the advance of the nation during the reign of this great monarch is one of the most extraordinary events of the age. Russia has ever since continued to tread the path marked out by him. These changes were all the personal work of Peter, and they met with bitter opposition from the nobles and clergy.

Catherine II. and the Partition of Poland.—After the death of Peter in 1725 Russia ceased to play an important part in European politics, owing to internal troubles. The throne was occupied by a succession of female sovereigns who were under the influence of favourites. But on the accession of Catherine II. in 1762, Russia again came under the sway of a ruler with a genius for statecraft. She was by birth a German, the wife of Peter III., but she deposed her husband and ruled Russia from 1762 to 1796 with wonderful ability and success in spite of her personal vices.

The advance of Russia during her reign was in two directions, at the expense of Poland and Turkey. Poland had fallen very low in the eighteenth century. The kingdom was elective, not hereditary, and the nobles were all-powerful, for the veto of a single noble (*liberum veto*) could stop all general action by the Diet or assembly of nobles. Naturally anarchy prevailed, and foreign powers were constantly being called in to settle disputes between rival claims. Since the development of her military power under Peter the Great, Russia had gained paramount influence in the election of the Polish kings, but Catherine was anxious to add a portion of Poland to her dominions. Frederick the Great of Prussia also wanted West Poland to connect together his scattered territories, and in 1764

the confederates were able to secure the election of Stanislaus Poniatowski, who proved a useful tool for their purposes. Troubles broke out over religious matters, Russia taking the part of the Greek Church against the Roman Catholics. But what actually led in 1772 to the first partition of Poland was the desire to prevent Russia from pursuing her conquests of Turkish territory, which would have brought her into contact with Austria, and would probably have provoked a general war. France was bitterly opposed to the partition, but was too far off to interfere actively ; and it was carried out by Russia, Prussia, and Austria, each taking the provinces most useful to her. Twenty years later, in 1793, the second partition took place, but in this Austria had no part. In the third and final partition, in 1795, the three powers completed their work, and Poland disappeared from the map of Europe as a separate state. Russia obtained much the largest portion by these arrangements, which advanced her power far into Central Europe ; but Austria and Prussia received very considerable additions of territory, Prussia in particular benefiting by the junction of East Prussia with the main body of the Brandenburg dominions. The final ruin of Poland was rendered less ignominious by her gallant struggle for independence under the leadership of Kosciuszko against overwhelming odds.

The success of Catherine's policy against the Turks was hardly less striking. The first war, lasting from 1768 to 1774, was ended by the Treaty of Kutchuk Kainardji. The Russians obtained the right to navigate the Black Sea, and the independence of the Tartars of the Crimea was recognised by the Turks, the effect being the establishment of Russian influence in the Crimea, soon followed by its absorption in Catherine's dominions. Another war

broke out in 1787, but Russia was faced by the threatened opposition of Prussia, and in 1792 Catherine, by the Treaty of Jassy, accepted the Dneister as the boundary of the two empires. She was anxious to turn her undivided attention to the partition of Poland.

The Minor Powers in the Eighteenth Century.—For most of the minor powers the eighteenth century is a period of decadence. Sweden quite drops out from the number of first-class powers. Under Charles X. (1654-1660), and again under Charles XII. (1697-1718), there had been temporary revivals, but the resources of the country were incapable of bearing the strain of foreign war, and the rise of powerful centralised states in Russia and Prussia deprived Sweden of its temporary and factitious power. Denmark and Holland also sink into insignificance, the latter country being almost a dependency of England during the greater part of the century. In each of these countries the change from greatness during the seventeenth century to weakness in the eighteenth is very marked.

Spain figures prominently among the Western nations, but it is mainly on account of the connection between her kings and the French monarchy, with whom they formed a Family Compact. Alone she was quite unable to cope with the great powers, the rash schemes of Alberoni, which were foiled by the Quadruple Alliance (1718-1720), only resulting in added weakness; but as an ally of France she was very useful, especially in naval warfare. Portugal, after her emancipation from the yoke of Spain in 1640, and the accession of the House of Braganza, enjoyed a long period of tranquillity under her great minister, Pombal. Her colonies and commerce were a source of considerable prosperity, which, however, declined under the pressure of Dutch and English competition.

Italy was still divided among numerous powers, but during this period one of them began to rise in importance, and carve out an independent position for itself. This was the House of Savoy, which, with no great intrinsic strength, yet contrived by extraordinarily skilful diplomacy to emerge with increased power from every struggle. Its princes joined the Grand Alliance against Louis XIV., and at the Treaty of Utrecht received Sicily as a kingdom. Sicily was seized by Spain in 1718, but the Quadruple Alliance gave Sardinia instead to Savoy, with the title of King, and during the War of the Austrian Succession they acquired a part of the Duchy of Milan. They were thus forming the nucleus of the power which was to enable them in the nineteenth century to unite all Italy under their rule.

Apart from this, there was no attempt to set up a strong power in the Peninsula. The Kingdom of the Two Sicilies was ruled after 1738 by a branch of the Spanish Bourbons, and was practically a dependency of Spain. Venice had maintained a heroic struggle against the Turks in the seventeenth century, and at the Peace of Carlowitz in 1699 had acquired the Peloponnesus; but the long wars had much weakened her, and she lost it again at the Treaty of Passarowitz in 1718. The Eastern trade which had once enriched her had passed with the discovery of America and of the Cape route to India into the hands of the Western nations; the old aristocratic government failed to adapt itself to the changed conditions, and the city was ready to fall an easy prey to Bonaparte. Tuscany was ceded to the Dukes of Lorraine in 1738, at the end of the Polish Succession War, when Lorraine fell to France; and by the marriage of Maria Theresa to the Duke of Lorraine Tuscany became virtually an Austrian province. The Papacy

plays little or no part in the general history of the period. It no longer counted as a great political force, and the Popes confined themselves in matters temporal to administering their estates wisely. If there was no great fervour, there were no great scandals, and the Roman Pontiffs of the day were not dominated by the ambitions which had been conspicuous in many of their predecessors. The suppression of the Order of Jesus by Pope Clement XIV. in 1773 was perhaps the most notable event in the history of the Church during the eighteenth century; the Order was, however, afterwards set up again.

Of the troubles of Turkey enough has been said in sketching the progress of Russia. The Sultans were no longer a danger to the peace of Europe; from the siege of Vienna in 1683 under Mahomet IV. there had been an almost continuous decline in their power. The Janissaries had become a kind of hereditary caste, and the tribute of children from which they had been recruited was no longer levied on the subject nations. Constant revolts, palace revolutions, and the vices inseparable from Oriental despotism had undermined the power once so formidable, and the time was at hand when the ambition of the Christian peoples was destined to revive the Eastern Question and make its market out of Turkish weakness.

The main features of the period now concluded are the rise of France and England to commanding influence in Europe and their long duel for the empire of the world beyond the seas, the foundation of a new power in the United States of America, the ascent of Russia on the ruins of Poland and Turkey, and the growth of Prussia to the position of a first-class power. These form the main stream of events, which has continued to run a practically unchanged course almost to the present day, when the

unification of Germany and Italy is turning it into other channels. The ferment of the Reformation had subsided into a period of scepticism and disillusion in which lay germinating the seeds of the next great convulsion, the French Revolution. All enthusiasm was suspected, and the tendency was to bring everything to the test of an average and somewhat uninspired good sense. Science was everywhere cultivated with real devotion and great success. Commerce experienced an immense development, and the discovery of Australia and the voyages of Cook and La Perouse gave promise of its still greater extension. Much progress was made in comfort and material civilisation, and the inventions of Watt, Arkwright, and Crompton were beginning that revolution in industry which was destined to alter the structure of society in the succeeding periods.

In literature and the arts a high, though not the highest level was attained. England and France take the place of Italy under the Renaissance; and Bacon and Descartes, Newton and Locke are the rulers of European thought. The spirit of religion is cold and formal, the temper of the age practical, material, and selfish; nevertheless there is a steady growth of sympathy for the poor, the enslaved, and the oppressed. Voltaire, Howard, Clarkson, Beccaria breathe a new spirit of humanity, and the doctrines of Rousseau are opening the floodgates to the tide which is to sweep away the old order.

CHAPTER VII.

The French Revolution.

The French Revolution.—During the period from 1789 to 1815 the history of Europe centres in the Revolution in France and the wars to which it gave rise. Its effects were felt everywhere, and the interests of Eastern and Western nations alike were involved in the upheaval caused by the spread of revolutionary ideas. The great English statesman Fox said that the fall of the Bastille was much the greatest event in the history of the world; and although it is impossible to endorse this view absolutely, it is certain that the present state of society is in great measure the outcome of the changes made in this short period. These changes were not political only: they were accompanied by profound social and economic changes brought about by the final break up of feudal ideas and the development of a new ordering of society. It was a time of much suffering for the peoples of Europe, but the ultimate gain has been very great, for the spread of liberal ideas has resulted in the establishment of constitutional government in nearly all the continental states; and though in 1815 the forces of reaction appeared to have triumphed, the seeds were sown that were to bring forth the movement for liberal reform in the troublous times of 1848.

Causes of the Revolution.—In the eighteenth century a school of philosophers arose who set themselves to investigate the origin of society, and to understand how men came to be divided into classes and orders. These enquiries were especially dangerous at a time when the bulk of the people all over Europe were poor, and miserable, and oppressed, and when there was a constantly increasing discontent with the existing state of things. The most popular of these thinkers were Voltaire and Rousseau, and from the latter the people learnt the dangerous doctrine that all men are by nature equal, and are entitled to equal rights and opportunities. Such ideas struck at the very roots of the evils most felt in the eighteenth century. The main grounds of complaint were two—the abuses arising from the absolute power of the kings, and those caused by the privileges of the nobles.

Since the time of Louis XIV. the royal power had been absolutely without limits, and it was always exercised without any thought for the happiness of the nation. The grandeur of the monarchy was the sole object, and in consequence immense sums had been lavished upon useless wars and upon the pleasures of the Court. Very heavy taxation was the inevitable result, and an altogether undue proportion of the taxes fell upon the middle and lower classes, the peasantry in particular being unfairly overburdened. This grievance was felt the more severely because of the unequal division and miserable cultivation of the land, two-thirds of which were in the hands of the clergy and nobility. And while the misery went on increasing, the people had no opportunity of stating their grievances, for the States General had not met since 1614. Louis XVI. (1774-1793) was an amiable man, willing to alleviate the distress as far as possible, but the disease had gone too far for ordinary

measures to be efficacious. The sufferings of the people and the burden of the debt had been increased to such a degree by the wars and vices of Louis XV. that the efforts of statesmen like Turgot and Necker to reform the finances and the general administration were quite fruitless. In 1789 Louis XVI. was obliged to have recourse to his people and to summon the States General.

The evils of absolute government were aggravated by the abuses caused by the nobility. Louis XIV. had left the nobles their privileges while depriving them of their duties. Thus they had nothing to do except to live at the Court in attendance on the king, drawing pensions provided from the taxes, while their estates went to ruin during their absence. They obtained, generally by purchase, all the best posts in the army and navy, and they enjoyed numerous privileges in regard to taxation, while the rights to exact the old feudal dues from the peasants were carefully maintained. Moreover, to the king and the nobles, the two claimants for money and service from the peasantry, there must be added the clergy, who enjoyed similar privileges. It is no cause for wonder that all over France the peasants were starving, and that the Third Estate, the middle and lower classes, were ready to take the first opportunity to remedy their grievances.

The States General and the National Assembly.—The States General was summoned in 1789 to review the financial situation, but it soon appeared that political questions and the redress of grievances were uppermost in the general mind. The Third Estate refused to sit separately from the Nobles and Clergy, whom it outnumbered; and after much excited debate the privileged classes gave way, and the three Orders united to form the National Assembly. While this was going on the

temper of the people was continually becoming more dangerous, and the Court summoned the army to Paris for its protection, whereupon there was an insurrection; the mob captured the Bastille or state prison, and the Revolution had begun. The National Assembly abolished feudal rights and privileges, the sale of offices was prohibited, and a Declaration of the Rights of Man was passed.

Many of the reforms were most salutary; but though the French had learnt much from the English Revolution of 1688 and from the American War of Independence, they had not learnt moderation. A new constitution was drawn up and was accepted by Louis XVI. in 1791. Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity were the watchwords of the new system, and it is these principles which have proved the permanent part of the Revolution, for the various systems of government set up were of very brief duration. But from 1790 France has generally enjoyed freedom of religion, of the individual, and of the press; and it has been established that the government holds its powers from the nation, a principle of great importance in the subsequent history of Europe. It had been the leading principle of the English Revolution, but had been for long confined to our own island. The new movement was propagated with missionary fervour, and the French tried to spread its doctrines far and wide through Europe.

Execution of the King and the Reign of Terror.—Ideas of this character were naturally regarded with grave suspicion by the other powers, who were further influenced by the nobles who had fled from France. The support of these *émigrés* by Austria led to the declaration of war by France, and Prussia was also involved as the ally of the Emperor. The fortune of war was at first favourable to

the allies, and the revolutionary spirit in Paris was stimulated almost to madness by anger and terror. The new Legislative Assembly distrusted the king, and the monarchy was finally abolished in September 1791 after terrible disorders, France being declared a Republic by the National Convention. In 1793 Louis XVI. was executed, and all real power passed into the hands of a Committee of Public Safety.

For the control of this committee the various parties and clubs maintained a terrible and bloody struggle. In June 1793 it passed from the Girondists to the party of the "Mountain," led by Marat, Danton, and Robespierre, and the period of their rule has been styled the Reign of Terror. Their enemies were executed or imprisoned, the whole power of the state was wielded by them, and the action of the laws practically superseded by a dictatorship. For nearly a year this terrible government lasted, until Robespierre had rid himself of all his enemies and was in fact for a short time supreme. But in July 1794 he also fell, and comparative quiet followed, the nation being weary of bloodshed and violence. In 1795 a third constitution was devised, which gave the control to a Directory of five, and under it France enjoyed comparative tranquillity until 1799.

Europe and the Revolution.—During all this period France was waging war against the powers of Europe. The early successes of the invading Prussians and Austrians had actually threatened Paris, but the victories of Dumouriez at Valmy and Jemappes in 1792 soon carried the war out of the French territories. Although England, Spain, and Holland were all involved in the war against France after the news of Louis' execution had spread, the revolutionary armies continued their career of victory.

Belgium and Holland were conquered by 1795, and fighting went on in Italy and on the Rhine frontier, which was ceded to France by the Treaty of Basle in 1795. In this treaty all the combatants joined except Austria and England. The Directory thus began its rule under favourable auspices, for besides the Rhine frontier Holland was practically under its control. There was no cessation of hostilities, the Directory having no intention of allowing its armies to live in idleness; foreign war was a necessity, for the soldiers could not be supported at home.

Napoleon Bonaparte, a native of Corsica, now appears upon the scene. He had joined the French army and had worked his way upward to high command. In 1796 he invaded Italy, then held by the Austrians, and in six months northern Italy was at his feet and the enemy driven beyond the frontiers. In 1797 Bonaparte was advancing on Vienna, and the defeated Austrians were obliged to make peace by the Treaty of Campo Formio. Belgium was ceded to France, and the Duchy of Milan was made the nucleus of a North Italian Republic under French protection. Venice lost her independence and was handed over to Austria.

England alone was left to continue the war. Everywhere victorious by land, the French had not been successful at sea, and their fleets and those of Spain and Holland were constantly beaten by the English admirals. As this made an invasion of England too hazardous, Bonaparte in 1798 devised a plan for striking a blow at the English empire in India by an expedition to Egypt and the East. He reached Egypt with his army and soon subdued it, but his victories were robbed of their importance by Nelson, who completely destroyed his fleet at Aboukir Bay; and when he had advanced into Syria, he was foiled by the stubborn

defence of Acre by Sir Sidney Smith, and was obliged to retreat. Thus ended his hopes of destroying the English power in Egypt (1799). Bonaparte contrived to escape to France in the following year, for affairs there had reached a crisis, but his army was left to its fate. In 1801 Abercrombie landed with an English army, and the French troops were defeated at Alexandria and obliged to capitulate.

The Consulate.—During Bonaparte's absence the aggressive policy of the Directory had again involved France in hostilities. The resentment caused by French interference in Switzerland, Rome, and southern Italy enabled the English Prime Minister, William Pitt, son of the Earl of Chatham, to arrange an alliance with Austria and Russia against France. The allies met with considerable success on the Rhine and in Italy; and this fact, coupled with internal troubles, made France welcome Bonaparte as a saviour on his return from Egypt. He had no difficulty in carrying out another change of government, by which the Directory was replaced by a Consulate, with Bonaparte himself as First Consul (1800). In effect he was now master of France, for the legislative assemblies had very little power, and the two Consuls who served with him were nothing more than figure-heads.

Having settled affairs at home Bonaparte turned his attention to the military situation. He led his army into Italy across the Alps, and at Marengo the Austrian power was again shattered, while in Germany a great victory was also won at Hohenlinden. Russia had already retired from the struggle, and Austria was again forced to make peace. The Treaty of Lunéville (1801) was, however, little more than a renewal of the terms arranged at Campo Formio in 1797. Though England had thus been unable to check the progress of French

conquest on land, she continued the war until 1802, when peace was made by the Treaty of Amiens. The French Republic was now recognised by all Europe, and the Helvetican, Batavian, Milanese, and Cisalpine republics, which she had set up round her borders, were also acknowledged, and thus entered for a short time into the public system of the Continent. England gained the rich island of Ceylon, and undertook to give up Malta, though this arrangement was never carried out. The peace of Europe seemed to be assured, and it was hoped that France would settle down to the quiet enjoyment of the benefits she had obtained by the Revolution.

Bonaparte's Domestic Reforms. The Empire.—The whole tendency of Bonaparte's policy at this period was towards despotism, but it cannot be denied that he gave France a better system of government than she had enjoyed for a long time. He proclaimed an amnesty and allowed the emigrant nobles to return to France. Religion, which had almost disappeared during the Reign of Terror, was restored, and by a *Concordat* or agreement with the Pope (1802) Roman Catholicism became again the state religion, under the control of the First Consul. The effect of this was to gain for Bonaparte very useful support from the clergy. An efficient police was established, and the army was maintained on a splendid footing. But perhaps his greatest administrative work was the *Code Napoléon*, the modern French system of law, begun several years before, but completed and published under his directions in 1804. It is a model of conciseness, simplicity, and justice, and has conferred the greatest benefits on France. It was in the same year that Bonaparte assumed the title of Emperor. He had been made Consul for life in 1802; in 1804 he was proclaimed Emperor, and in 1805 he became King of

Italy also, the Cisalpine Republic being transformed into a kingdom.

Napoleon and England.—The Treaty of Amiens in 1802 between France and England was little more than a truce. Each country failed to make the promised restitutions of territory, England refusing to give up Malta, and France delaying the evacuation of Naples and the Papal States. Preparations for the renewal of the struggle went on continuously, and Napoleon planned a great invasion of England from Boulogne. War broke out in 1805, and Pitt induced Russia, Austria, and Sweden to join a coalition against France, which was in alliance with Spain. The projected invasion of England was abandoned, owing to the genius of Nelson, who foiled Napoleon's plan for gaining the temporary command of the Channel. The French and Spanish fleets were overwhelmed by Nelson at Trafalgar in 1805, and England's control of the sea was assured throughout the rest of the war.

Henceforth Napoleon's only means of harming his greatest enemy was to attack her trade by the "Continental System." In pursuit of this object, after subduing Austria and Prussia, he issued in 1806 the Berlin Decrees forbidding all countries under the control of France to trade with Great Britain. England responded by the Orders in Council, which declared all ports belonging to France in a state of blockade, and forbade all trade with France or her allies, and in 1807 Napoleon met this counter-attack by the Milan Decrees. Neither country was successful, but the struggle caused great misery to the subjects of the neutral powers, owing to smuggling and loss of trade. The Orders in Council, and the manner in which their restrictions were enforced by the British fleet, eventually involved England in a war with the United States. It

lasted from 1812 to 1814 and was injurious to both parties, for American commerce was almost destroyed by the English fleets, while much damage was done to English shipping by American privateers.

Notwithstanding the loss and suffering occasioned by the Continental System, Napoleon adhered to it with the greatest tenacity, and at Tilsit in 1807 he succeeded in inducing Russia also to exclude English vessels from her ports. The effect on Russian trade was ruinous.

Napoleon's Conquest of Europe.—As soon as Napoleon saw that Nelson's vigilance had frustrated his projected invasion of England, he turned his forces against the other members of the Coalition formed against him by Pitt and subsidised by English gold. Before Trafalgar was actually fought he had compelled a large Austrian army to surrender at Ulm, and by the close of 1805 he had captured Vienna and inflicted a crushing defeat on the combined Austrians and Russians at Austerlitz. The humiliation of Austria was completed by the disastrous Peace of Pressburg, and in 1806 Napoleon was able to turn his attention to Prussia, which had been kept from joining the Coalition by his skilful diplomacy and her own selfish policy. The Prussian army was overwhelmed at the battles of Jena and Auerstadt (1806) and the whole country subdued, and Napoleon advancing into Poland, after fighting a drawn battle with the Russians at Eylau (1807), brought the war to an end by the victory of Friedland (1807). The Treaty of Tilsit (1807) made Napoleon master of Western Europe; all his conquests and annexations were recognised, and Prussia, now become practically the vassal of France, was treated with the greatest severity. Russia, which was to share with Napoleon the control of the Continent, undertook to enforce the Continental System, and a plan was

arranged for combining all the navies of Europe in an attack on Great Britain.

Napoleon had thus conquered all the most powerful nations of the Continent, and it seemed that his power was quite secure, but there were elements of weakness in his position. A cardinal feature of his policy was to appoint members of his own family to the thrones of the various dependent kingdoms. Moreover, he continued to proceed on the same course of grasping and unscrupulous ambition. Portugal and Spain were invaded by his armies; the reigning dynasties were dethroned, and his brother Joseph became king of Spain. The result of this aggression was to rouse the Spaniards to the first of those great outbursts of national patriotism which eventually caused Napoleon's ruin. England came to the help of Spain, and war went on in the Peninsula from 1808 to 1814, the principal part being played by the English army. Napoleon's marshals were gradually driven back beyond the Pyrenees by the allied English and Spaniards under Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, and his difficulties in Russia and Germany prevented him from personally engaging in these campaigns.

In 1809 Austria, assisted by English subsidies, renewed the war, but the victory of Wagram and the Treaty of Vienna completed her subjection, and established Napoleon as virtual master of the Continent from 1809 to 1812. Still insatiable, however, he undertook in 1812 the invasion of Russia, which had refused to maintain the Continental System, and which perhaps offered him that road to the East which he had always desired. He was at first apparently successful, for he advanced into the heart of the country, and his victory at Borodino gave him possession of Moscow; but the resolution of the Russians was

unabated, and they refused to negotiate for peace. Moscow was burned over his head, winter came on, the country was a desert, and the Grand Army was forced to retreat, starving, and harassed by the pursuing Russians. Its sufferings were appalling, and the total loss was little short of half-a-million of men, veteran soldiers who could not be replaced.

The War of Liberation.—The utter destruction of the Grand Army inspired all patriotic Germans with the hope of throwing off the yoke. The Prussians, who had been the greatest sufferers, took the lead in an outburst of patriotic enthusiasm which soon spread all over Germany, the impulse coming more from the people than from the rulers. Russia, Prussia, Austria, and Sweden united against Napoleon; and though he raised a new army, and gained at Lutzen and Dresden victories worthy of his former fame, he was overmatched, and at the great “Battle of the Nations” at Leipzig (1813) the strength of the French was broken. In 1814 the allies invaded France from the east and Wellington attacked from the south, and in spite of Napoleon’s immense energy and brilliant generalship he was at length defeated in the struggle against overwhelming numbers.

The allies entered Paris, Napoleon abdicated, and Louis XVIII., brother of Louis XVI., returned to the throne of the Bourbons. Napoleon was sent to Elba, and the allied powers proceeded to settle their relations at the Congress of Vienna. France concluded the Treaty of Paris, by which she obtained terms which, considering the suffering she had inflicted on Europe, were very favourable. But the proceedings of the Congress of Vienna were interrupted by the return of Napoleon to the scene of action.

The Hundred Days and the Congress of Vienna.—The discontent of France with the Bourbon rule induced

Napoleon to escape from his exile in March, 1815, and to return to France. He was received with enthusiasm, especially by the army. Louis XVIII. fled, and Napoleon was again Emperor of the French. But the allies immediately united against him and called out their armies. Napoleon saw that he must strike at once, and made a sudden advance into Belgium, intending to interpose between and defeat separately the Prussian and English armies which had been sent there. Blücher, the Prussian general, was defeated at Ligny, but he contrived to keep in touch with Wellington, who commanded the English and Dutch forces. The final struggle took place at Waterloo on June 18th, 1815, when Wellington held out all day against Napoleon's attacks, until the arrival of Blücher's army ensured the complete defeat of the French. France was again invaded: Napoleon abdicated a second time, and was sent to a more secure prison at St. Helena. His second reign had lasted but a Hundred Days.

The final defeat of Napoleon at Waterloo enabled the Congress of Vienna to resume the settlement of European affairs—the last general settlement that has taken place. The second Treaty of Paris bore more hardly on France than that of 1814, for she was reduced to her boundaries of 1792, and France was left as she is to-day, save for Alsace and Lorraine, lost in 1871, and for Savoy, ceded to her in 1860. Mauritius was ceded to England, which also acquired the Cape of Good Hope from the Dutch, Ceylon, and Malta, besides several islands in the West Indies. The arrangement of the territories recovered from France was a more difficult matter, and the settlement made by the Congress did not last long.

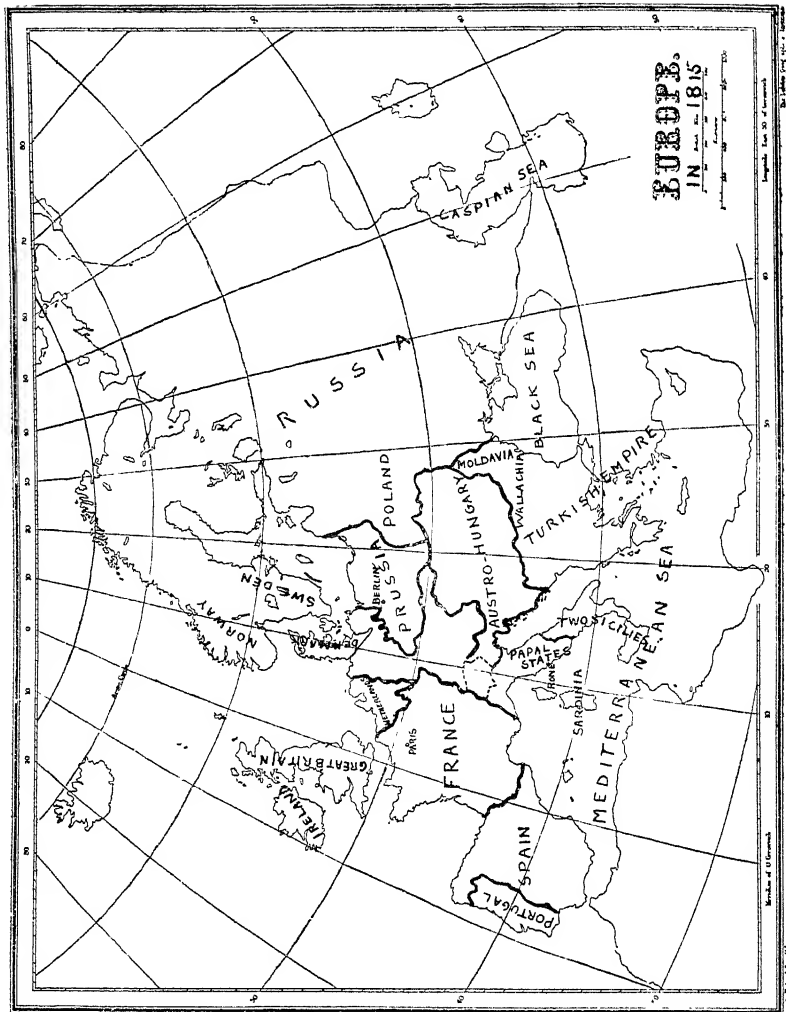
Austria received back most of her Italian provinces, including Milan; Venice and the Tyrol were also restored

to her. It may be noted here that in 1806 the Holy Roman Empire had come to an end even in name, for Francis II., Emperor of Austria since 1804, resigned his old title. Prussia endeavoured to obtain Saxony, but had to be content with the Rhine provinces from Cologne to Trèves, while in the east she received Danzig and part of the Duchy of Warsaw, the rest of the duchy falling to Russia. Thus the four great powers which had led the opposition to Napoleon profited greatly by the settlement, but the policy of the Congress was in other respects less successful. Savoy and Genoa were joined to Piedmont, but the numerous sovereign princes of Italy were all restored, because Austria would have regarded with jealousy any power which could rival her own. The former Austrian Netherlands (Belgium) were joined with Holland to form a single kingdom, and in Spain and Sardinia the old dynasties were restored. Sweden retained Norway, with a constitution of its own. In Germany a Confederation was formed, under the presidency of Austria, in place of the old Empire, but it served the cause of German unity no better than its predecessor.

Summary.—The few years from 1789 to 1815 brought about great changes in the map of Europe, but many of them were too artificial to be enduring, and too much opposed to the new spirit of nationality. In Spain, and later in Germany, the resistance to Napoleon had been a national growth, and had owed little to the rulers; and in Italy the temporary union caused by the French domination had fostered a national feeling. Germany and Italy each needed a centre round which to focus their efforts towards that unity which could alone give them strength and stability. In Germany Prussia had given proofs of qualities capable of supplying the want, while in Italy the House of Savoy was destined to be the rallying point of Italian

nationality. But of all this the politicians of the Congress of Vienna recked nothing when parcelling out the territories of Europe. Their work was done in complete disregard of national rights, and of differences of race and religion, and for that reason it could not long endure.

The important point to remember is that the Congress of Vienna is only a stage—the furthest point reached by the reaction against revolutionary ideas which was led by the monarchies of Europe. Those ideas, however, had sunk deep into the mind of every people, and in the succeeding period they were to work themselves out in the form of the great liberal and national movement which characterises the nineteenth century.



Map of Europe in 1815

Map of Europe in 1815

CHAPTER VIII.

Europe since 1815.

The Holy Alliance.—Although the French Revolution had produced throughout Europe a general desire for a larger share of personal and political freedom, the political outlook in 1815 was by no means favourable to the immediate realisation of such hopes. It is true that the sovereigns of Europe had entered into agreements to grant the constitutional privileges which were now beginning to be regarded as the inalienable rights of the people; but with Waterloo the danger from France finally disappeared, and it was inevitable that the monarchs should desire to return to the condition of affairs before the Revolution. Thus from 1815 to 1848 a struggle was going on, more or less openly, between the ideas of the *ancien régime*, the extreme monarchical system of France before 1789, and the principles of the Revolution.

The initial advantage lay with the existing governments, for the nations had become accustomed during Napoleon's wars to large standing armies, heavy taxation, and arbitrary interference with their personal and legal rights. The Italian states, Spain, and the German principalities reverted to despotic systems of government in spite of the promises made to the peoples during the War of Liberation in 1813; and in adopting this course their rulers were supported by the attitude of the three leading continental powers. When

the great settlement of the affairs of Europe was made in 1815, Alexander I. of Russia founded the Holy Alliance, which was to be a league of sovereigns, ruling justly, maintaining peace, and governing generally on a basis of religion and morality. The rulers of Prussia and Austria joined the Alliance, which soon degenerated in practice into a union for the protection of monarchy. As such it received the qualified support of England until Canning's accession to power in 1822, and France also was allowed to share in its councils. From 1820 to 1822 the members of the Holy Alliance met in a succession of congresses held at Troppau, Laybach, and Verona, to organise resistance to the liberal movements which everywhere began to show themselves.

In Italy there were disturbances in Naples (1820-21) and also in Piedmont, and the cruel and oppressive rule of Austria in Milan and Venice was causing universal hatred. In Germany the growing discontent of the people was rigorously suppressed, and the great influence of Metternich, the Austrian chief minister, was constantly employed in resisting the popular demands. In Spain there was a brief triumph for the revolutionary party, but a French army soon restored the monarchy on its old footing. Everywhere the Holy Alliance was acting as the police of Europe, but its triumph was to be short. The royalist and clerical reaction in France under Louis XVIII. was carried to excess by Charles X. (1824-1830), and England under Canning pursued the policy of non-intervention, and recognised that revolutions might be reasonable.

Greece was the first country to profit by the liberal movement. Rising in revolt against Turkey in 1821, she received by the Treaties of London (1827) and Adrianople (1829) practical independence, after a conflict in the

course of which the Turks were defeated at Navarino by the fleets of England, France, and Russia, and on land by the armies of the Tsar Nicholas I. But the freedom of Greece was soon to be followed by the liberation of more important nations from the fetters of despotism. And beyond the Atlantic also great changes were in progress, for the Spanish colonies in America had renounced their allegiance to the king of Spain, and in 1822 Brazil asserted its independence of Portugal. The United States were naturally favourable to such movements, as tending to diminish European influence in America, and in 1823 the famous "Monroe Doctrine" was enunciated, which proclaimed that the American continents were not subjects for future colonisation by any European power.

The Revolutions of 1830-31.—In 1830 the liberal movement, which had been gradually gaining strength, broke out with irresistible force; and now, as in 1789, France led the way. Charles X. had entirely failed to learn the lessons of the last fifty years, and in 1830 he was foolish enough to issue certain *Ordonnances* suppressing the liberty of the press and annulling the recent elections, which had returned a liberal majority. The result was the "July Revolution" of Paris, by which Charles was driven into exile, and Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, became king, with a constitution modelled on the lines of the English monarchy. The power in France down to 1848 rested with the middle classes; and notwithstanding a certain amount of dissatisfaction, expressed in the attempts made by Louis Napoleon, nephew of the Emperor, to raise an insurrection, the reign of Louis Philippe was a period of peace and prosperity at home, though its foreign policy involved the government in some difficulty and unpopularity.

The July Revolution in France seemed to be the signal for liberal uprisings throughout Europe. The day of the Holy Alliance was over, thanks to the policy of Canning; Alexander I., its principal champion, was dead, and Nicholas I., who succeeded him, was anxious to depart from the policy of Peter the Great, and to build up Russian power at home. He could not, however, keep clear of European politics: the Greek rising had involved him in a war with Turkey, and in 1830 Poland broke out in revolt, seeking to regain her independence. The Poles offered a gallant resistance to the Russian arms, but they met with no support from Europe, and at length they were defeated at Ostrolenka, Warsaw was captured (1831), and Poland lost the last vestiges of independence. A similarly unsuccessful result attended some revolts in Italy against the Austrian domination, but in some of the smaller states of Germany a constitution was wrung from the ruling princes—an empty victory, in view of the control exercised over the German Confederation by Prussia and Austria.

It was in Belgium that the greatest results were achieved. The union of Holland and Belgium by the Congress of Vienna had been the most flagrant violation of natural order; religious and racial antagonism had produced conflicts which were constantly becoming more embittered, and the government of the king of Holland had not taken the right course to conciliate its opponents. Accordingly in 1830 the southern provinces followed the example of the French liberals, and the Dutch were driven out. A conference was held at London, and the crown of Belgium was given to the family of Saxe-Coburg, which still reigns. In England an orderly and bloodless change was made in 1832 by the passing of the First Reform Bill, which by widening the basis of representation and removing the

gravest scandals of aristocratic influence went far towards producing political stability and content.

Industrial Europe.—The changes made and attempted by the revolutions of 1830 and the succeeding years revealed the fact that the middle classes of Europe were determined to exercise their influence in political affairs, and that the ideas which had so long kept them in subjection had ceased to hold sway over them. The tendency has ever since been running constantly in the same direction—to enlarged franchises, greater personal, social, and religious freedom, and the widening of popular representation, so that all classes may enjoy their due share of political power. In England of course constitutional government had prevailed since 1688, but the people had been so fully occupied in the development of their trade and commerce, in founding their colonial empire, and in the struggle against French aggression, that they had been content to postpone domestic reform. But with the coming of peace in 1815 a change took place in this respect, the consequences of which were far-reaching. For during the long period of strife which came to an end at Waterloo a great industrial and social revolution had been running its course, which necessitated a change in ideas and institutions.

The change was at first most marked in Great Britain, which almost alone had enjoyed domestic quiet, but during the century it has developed throughout Europe and the whole world. Probably no period of equal length has seen changes of such magnitude in the conditions of life and industry. The revolution was started by the invention of the steam-engine by Watt, and the application of its powers by a succession of inventors to every form of manufacturing industry. Railways and steamboats soon

followed, and the modern world, with these new facilities for intercourse supplemented by the telegraph and telephone, has assumed an entirely altered character. Each new application of science to industry and the arts has led to others, and the resulting growth of material prosperity has been prodigious and altogether unparalleled.

These great changes, however, were not brought about without much suffering. The introduction of machinery was bitterly opposed because it was thought that it would throw many people out of work, and it was only by slow degrees that the fallacy of this idea was recognised. Other grievances were better founded, for the crowding of the workers into the great manufacturing centres caused serious evils, and the haste of the manufacturers to become rich led to the worst forms of "sweating" and to abuses of woman- and child-labour. Much of the legislation of the nineteenth century has had to be devoted to securing the proper regulation of industrial conditions and ameliorating the lot of the working classes, and to their gradual admission to a share in the government. This tendency is perhaps the most striking feature of modern political history. The organisation of "Labour" in opposition to "Capital" and their too frequent warfare have largely taken the place of the old conflicts between kings and nobles and burghers, but this is at present too new a development to be more than noticed here.

France under the Second Empire.—By 1848 France had become weary of the government of Louis Philippe. Special discontent was felt at his foreign policy, which was supposed to be largely under the influence of England. The nation was restless and thirsted for military glory, and the conquest of Algiers in 1830 was the only acquisition made by France since the days of Napoleon. The

agitation for liberal government which was then proceeding in Germany and Italy brought the prevailing excitement to a head, and in February 1848 an insurrection in Paris overthrew Louis Philippe's throne, and for a short time France was again a Republic. The President, however, was Louis Napoleon, nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, and like his uncle he aimed at empire. In 1851 a *coup d'état* rid him of the leading republican chiefs, and in 1852 he was chosen Emperor by universal suffrage as Napoleon III.

The new Emperor gave out that his empire meant peace—in reality it meant general war, and the results to France, showy in appearance, were opposed to her true policy. The Crimean War with Russia in 1854 was soon followed by a campaign against the Austrians in Italy in 1859. The Austrians were defeated, but they retained Venice; and though France obtained a part of Savoy and Nice as the price of her aid, this did not afford her compensation for the formation of a strong and united Italy under the House of Savoy. Nor was Napoleon III. content with these wars near home. In Asia he began the conquest of Indo-China, and joined the English in their Chinese expeditions. An invasion of Mexico in support of the Archduke Maximilian's attempt to establish an empire there proved very disastrous, as it prevented France from interposing in the war between Prussia and Austria (1866), which gave the former power the headship of Germany, and which was soon followed by the Franco-Prussian War (1870).

But the wars of Napoleon III. did not achieve their object of making his government popular. Opposition grew steadily, and when he risked his all upon the war with Germany in 1870 and lost the early battles, his throne

immediately tottered and fell. He was deposed, and the Third French Republic was established in September 1871. Its early career was very troublous, for the city underwent a terrible siege by the victorious Prussians, and then the Socialist party, called the Commune, obtained control of Paris for a time; but in spite of this, and in spite of frequently threatened changes, the Third Republic still exists and has brought to France a period of greater tranquillity than she had enjoyed for many years.

The Unification of Germany.—The first Napoleon had given a certain amount of unity to Germany by his Confederation of the Rhine, but it was destroyed again by the Congress of Vienna. The powers had found it impossible to restore the old Empire, but in its place had been formed a German Confederation under the presidency of Austria. In practice each of the forty states forming the Confederation went its own way, but there was gradually growing up a feeling of nationality and common interest, fostered by the creation in 1833 of the Zollverein, or Customs Union, which placed all the German states on the same basis for fiscal purposes. Commercial union prepared the way for political, for Prussia was by far the most important of the states forming the union, and acquired the habit of exercising influence over its neighbours.

Yet Germany as a whole has very little history during this period, while the individual states were busily occupied in coping with the liberal movements that are so prominent a feature. In 1830 the monarchical powers retained the upper hand, but by 1848 the forces against them had grown too powerful to be resisted. The king of Prussia, Frederick William IV., was obliged to grant constitutional government; Austria and most of the smaller rulers made similar concessions. But the problem of German unity made

little progress towards solution. A great German National Assembly met at Frankfort in 1848 and sat until 1850, but the result of their work was insignificant. Austria would not submit to exclusion from German affairs, and Prussia would not submit to the predominance of Austria. A struggle between the two powers became inevitable.

The final breach between them occurred in 1866. Austria and Prussia united in wresting from Denmark the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein (1864), but they quarrelled over the distribution of the spoils, and in 1866 war broke out between the rivals. Each was supported by some of the smaller states of Germany, but the war was of short duration, for the Prussian power had been built up for many years by Bismarck and Moltke. Moreover, Italy attacked Austria in the rear, while France was occupied in Mexico and could not intervene. Seven weeks the war lasted; the Austrians were overwhelmed at the battle of Königgratz or Sadowa, and in the Treaty of Prague were compelled to surrender all the points at issue. Venice accrued to Italy, Schleswig-Holstein to Prussia, and the reorganisation of Germany without Austria became a recognised principle. Thus the great question of Prussian predominance in Germany was finally settled. In 1867 the North German Confederation was formed under Prussian leadership, the central states, Bavaria, Baden, Wurtemberg, remaining neutral for the time.

The Franco-Prussian War.—The formation of a centralised German State on the frontier of France led inevitably to a collision, but France intervened too late for her own purposes. The quarrel arose nominally over the question of succession to the throne of Spain, which France dreaded to see pass into Hohenzollern hands; in reality it was precipitated by Bismarck, who knew the strength of

Prussia and the weakness of France. War was declared in 1870. The French invaded Germany, but were speedily forced back, and met with numerous defeats culminating in the disaster of Sedan and the surrender of Bazaine's whole army at Metz. The French Empire fell, but the Republic which was proclaimed met with no greater success. Paris was besieged and captured (1871) in spite of the great efforts of the whole nation; and by the Preliminaries of Versailles, afterwards confirmed at Frankfurt, France was compelled to cede Alsace and Lorraine, and to pay a huge indemnity.

At Versailles also was founded the German Empire. Southern as well as northern states had united in the war with France, and on the 18th of January, 1871, they joined in the formation of a centralised Empire. The king of Prussia became the new Emperor, the controller of general foreign policy, while the domestic affairs of the various states were still managed by their own rulers. And thus was made the last great change which has occurred in Europe up to the present. Bismarck had completed his life's work of unifying Germany "by blood and iron," and Germany had won the latest phase of the ancient struggle for the middle kingdom.

The Union of Italy.—Italy had achieved unity a little sooner. From 1815 to 1848 revolts had occurred at regular intervals, but in all cases they were strenuously suppressed by the Austrians, and absolutist principles were strictly enforced by their aid even in Naples and Piedmont (1820-1). But in 1848 discontent of a more formidable kind broke out against Austrian rule, for liberal governments had been granted in several of the states, notably the dominions of Savoy. Milan revolted, and was aided by Charles Albert of Sardinia; but their

early successes led to nothing, and by 1849 Lombardy was again under Austrian control. Victor Emmanuel succeeded his father, Charles Albert, and proceeded to consolidate his position in Europe by taking part in the Crimean War and generally strengthening his power under the guidance of Count Cavour. France was drawn into alliance, and in 1859 war again broke out with Austria. The victories of Magenta and Solferino drove the Austrians out of Italy, and by the Peace of Zürich Lombardy was abandoned, Venice being retained by the Emperor, but only to be lost in 1866.

Italy was therefore freed from her old masters, and the tendency to unity was irresistible. Garibaldi won Naples and Sicily for Victor Emmanuel, who in 1861 took the title of King of Italy. The whole country was his except Rome, where Pius IX. was maintained by the French. But in 1870, owing to the pressure of her war with Germany, France could no longer support the Pope, and Rome too was added to the Italian kingdom. Victor Emmanuel, Cavour, and Garibaldi had played the parts of Bismarck and Moltke in Germany; while Mazzini, by his writings, had exercised great influence in spreading the ideas of nationality and independence.

Russia and the Eastern Questions.—Throughout the nineteenth century the East was a constant source of danger to the peace of Europe. The weakness of Turkey and the ambition of Russia to possess a port upon an open sea have necessitated careful watching by the Western nations, while in Asia the conflicting interests of Russia and England have proved very dangerous. The independence of Greece was achieved without causing any serious difficulty, but the rise of the power of Mehemet Ali in Egypt led to some trouble. With the help of France Mehemet

Ali had established a power which threatened to overthrow the Sultan of Turkey, and did indeed capture Syria (1832). England, Russia, and Austria, however, stepped in to prevent the dismemberment of the Turkish Empire, and finally by the Treaty of London in 1840 Syria was restored to the Sultan. In 1841 it was agreed that the Hellespont should be closed to all ships of war, so that the Black Sea became politically a lake.

The peaceful settlement thus arrived at did not last for long. The Tsar, Nicholas I., revived the old dream of a Russian Constantinople, and in spite of English hostility pressed his claims to a protectorate of all members of the Greek Church. Russia declared war on Turkey in 1853, and in the following year England, France, and Sardinia joined against the Tsar. The war was carried on mainly in the Crimea, where the allies won several victories and captured Sebastopol. By the Treaty of Paris in 1856 Russia was obliged to resign her pretensions, and to cede some small provinces to Turkey, while the allies secured the existence of the Turkish barrier against Russia for another term of years.

Twenty years later the question was re-opened, for Russia again claimed to protect the Greek Church, and defeated the Turkish armies after a great resistance. The Western nations did not interfere by force of arms, but by the Treaty of San Stefano and the Congress of Berlin (1878) the affairs of Eastern Europe were settled on the basis which still obtains. Russia obtained large parts of Armenia, besides the restoration of provinces ceded in 1856, while Montenegro, Servia, Bulgaria, and Roumania were definitely established as independent principalities. Bosnia and Herzegovina passed to Austria. England obtained nothing at the time, but since then she has secured her

position in the East by the acquisition of Cyprus (1878), and by obtaining a firm footing in Egypt to command the Suez Canal and the Red Sea. Thus the policy of all parties has been directed towards a balance of power in the East of Europe, each advance being met by a corresponding step upon the other side.

England in the Nineteenth Century.—The interests of Great Britain since the wars with Napoleon have been more directly concerned with the world outside Europe than with continental politics. It is of course impossible for her to ignore European affairs, but active intervention in them has been rare, and has only been necessary in connection with her relations to Turkey and Russia. At the same time, however, the interests of all the great nations are now world-wide, and action cannot be taken even in the remotest corners of the globe without bringing European rivals into contact. The politics of modern nations are largely influenced by commercial questions, and the pursuit of commercial and industrial supremacy plays perhaps the paramount part in English history. For England led the way in the Industrial Revolution, owing to her domestic peace, and the advantage she thus gained over her rivals has not been lost. The adoption of the policy of Free Trade, begun by Pitt and Huskisson and completed by Peel under the pressure of Cobden's agitation, resulted in an enormous development of industry and wealth, while throughout the reign of Victoria the tendency to enlarge gradually the basis of political power by admitting new classes to the franchise has been pursued without any of the violent convulsions which troubled the Continent (Reform Bills of 1832, 1867, and 1885).

Abroad the power of Britain was very great throughout the century. Her influence in Europe was mainly exercised

in diplomacy, but in the field of colonial enterprise British activity was very great. Australia was developed, New Zealand was added to the empire and speedily became important, and in Africa large tracts of land were acquired by treaty and by war. Moreover, Great Britain recognised the important principle of self-government in her great colonies. Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and Cape Colony have control over their own domestic affairs, and the strongest bonds connecting the mother-country and her colonies are affection and community of interest.

In Asia Great Britain has frequently been involved in wars. The Indian Mutiny in 1857 threatened to overthrow her empire in that country, but it was finally suppressed, and since then the frontier has been steadily advanced. Wars were waged against China in 1840 and 1857 to compel the opening of the country for European trade, and British power was definitely established by the cession of certain towns as a guarantee of good faith.

The Minor Countries.—The history of the nineteenth century is dominated by the great powers, which tend to control the destinies of the smaller countries at their will. Only the dread of provoking a general conflict prevents the absorption of some of these smaller states by their powerful neighbours.

Denmark lost Schleswig and Holstein to Germany. Sweden and Norway remained united until 1905, and Belgium and Holland have each pursued a peaceful course. Spain on the other hand has gone through troublous times. She lost her most important South American colonies in the early part of the century, and she has also been a prey to intestine quarrels. The Bourbon dynasty was restored in 1815, but the reactionary policy of the government

caused much discontent, and in 1822 a French army entered Spain to restore order. From 1833 to 1840 there was civil war between the rivals Queen Isabella and Don Carlos, while from 1868 to 1875 there were further dynastic troubles. Thus the influence of Spain upon later history has been trifling, and the period of rest that was necessary to renew her strength was interrupted by a disastrous war with the United States in 1898. Portugal has experienced great confusion, for Brazil was lost to her, and questions of succession led to civil war from 1820 to 1832; but since then peace and prosperity have generally reigned. Switzerland has preserved her independence and tranquillity, but the border states between Russia, Austria, and Turkey lead a chequered and precarious existence, for they occupy a position coveted by their more powerful neighbours and are especially subject to their influence.

In Austria the royal power suffered other blows than the losses sustained at the hands of Prussia in 1866. The liberal movement had met with much support in Hungary, where the Magyars stood out firmly for the recognition of their independence. In 1848-9, under the influence of Kossuth, they even had recourse to arms; but the Emperor Francis Joseph quelled the insurrection by the aid of Russia, and for a time Hungary became merely a vassal state of Austria. After the war of 1866, however, the separate existence of Hungary was finally recognised, and the Emperor Francis Joseph was crowned King of Hungary. Yet even now the racial distinctions in his dominions between German, Magyar, Czech, and Italian seem to threaten danger to the peace of Europe, since the peoples are united in nothing but in affection for their ruler.

Conclusion.—To discuss the important features of recent history is very difficult because we are too near to get a

proper perspective. But there are certain broad features which inevitably present themselves for consideration. The spirit of liberty has made great advances. France set the example, and the other nations have followed it. Nor is the liberty obtained merely political: the abolition of slavery by England throughout her colonies in 1833, which was completed by the Civil War in America (1861-65), marks a great step in the world's progress. The last century saw also the recognition of the principle of nationality, based on common language, race, and interest, exemplified in the triumph of unity in Germany and Italy. And, lastly, civilisation in general has made vast strides throughout the world. The wonderful inventions of the last century have altered the face of the world, and there are many who cherish the hope that, with the development of intercourse between the nations, the old system of war and rivalry may die, and that all nations may join in forwarding the progress of mankind towards perfection.

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